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THE

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

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☞ *This Index is arranged in the following manner.—Every article is placed under the first letter and the first* vowel *following that letter. Thus* Ashantee *comes before* Agriculture.

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Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

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The publication of the communications addressed to the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, is commenced this week.

—

In the newspaper controversy that has been excited by the proposed alteration of the tariff, it has appeared to us that the opponents of the change have seldom founded their objections upon entirely solid ground. Sometimes it has been stated that it was a necessary consequence of manufactures, to enfeeble the body and corrupt the mind, and it was thence supposed to be our wisest policy to avert as long as we could, the necessity of manufacturing any thing that we could get from abroad. The superiority of agriculture has been loudly extolled, and sneering nick-names have been applied to the manufacturers. Considering the question in an entirely different light, it is our opinion that manufactures are no less honourable or useful than employments of agriculture; and the same pleasure would be received by hearing of a manufactory profitably conducted, and of new and useful machinery, as from the report of successful operations in farming, or the naturalization of any useful productions of foreign soil.

For a very clear elucidation of the equal usefulness of these departments of industry, we refer our readers to Tracy's Political Economy, chap. ii., *on Production.*

Miscellany.

MEN OF LETTERS IN FRANCE.

Translated for the National Recorder from L'Hermite de la Guiane.

"Ingenium, sibi quod vacuas desumpsit Athenas,
Et studiis annos septem dedit, insenuitque
Libris et curis, statuâ taciturnius exit
Plerumque, et risu populum quatit."

HOR. Ep. ii. liv. 11.

I am not convinced that it is quite right to call the age of Louis XIV. the *age of letters*, in proud comparison with other periods; and I do not despair but that it will some day be allowable to examine whether the age in which flourished Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Buffon, D'Alembert; in which shone, in an inferior order, Diderot, Crebillon, Duclos, Thomas, Delille, Marmontel, La Harpe, Ducis; and, in a third rank, Gilbert, Collardeau, Florian, and a crowd of other writers of the same merit;—I do not despair, I say, that an age adorned by so many great men, will one day rival in glory and splendour that which has been so justly immortalised by the names of Molière, Bossuet, Racine, Pascal, Fenelon, and Boileau: but this is not the proper place for such a discussion, and, continuing, till there shall be a change, to call the seventeenth century *the age of letters*, I shall call the eighteenth *the age of men of letters.*

All that could be effected by the genius of the great men who were contemporary with Louis XIV. was to draw to themselves a degree of personal respect, which placed them almost on an equality with a king's treasurer or the receivers of excise; but the esteem in which they were individually held was not extended to their profession. At the time of La Rochefoucault and Sevigné, it was still fashionable for a gentleman to be ignorant of orthography; and Cavoie showed some courage in going to court in company with Racine. Knowledge owes some regard to Ignorance, who is her elder sister, and the men of letters did not complain of impertinent contempt, which would cease with the cause that produced it. The first effect of a more liberal education among the great, was to inspire them with a love of letters, and to draw them nearer to those whose profession it was to cultivate them.

This alliance, of which Voltaire had laid the foundation, was never more strict or more general in France, than during the last century: greatness, wit and talent, lent each other a mutual support, and were frequently united in the same persons. We may imagine the charm of the assemblies of Mesdames Du Deffand, D'Epinay, Geoffrin, D'Houdetot, where every kind of splendour was combined; where Montesquieu

consulted the duchess D'Aiguillon upon the Persian Letters; where D'Alembert and the author of the *Tactics*, contended for the heart of Mademoiselle Lespinasse; where Rousseau declaimed against nobility in the presence of marshal Luxembourg. The protection that was given to letters and the arts by D'Argenson, Turgot and Malesherbes, was not, as it was before and has been since, the salary of eulogiums bestowed upon men in power by starving writers, who may be compared to those beggars upon the great roads, who throw flowers into the carriages that pass, and pray for charity: an honourable independence was the peculiar lot of the writers of that epoch, who equally made it a point to write and to act well, and the greater part of whom were not less celebrated for their dignity than for their talents. The names of Thomas, of Helvetius, of Duclos, of Saint Lambert, are equally dear to the friends of virtue and the lovers of literature; and this noble character still distinguishes among us those of their contemporaries who survive them.

In all ages, those who have laboured with the most zeal, for the instruction and consequent amelioration of mankind, have suffered most from the injustice of their countrymen; almost all of them might have said, with lord Bacon in his prophetic testament, "I leave my name and memory to foreign nations and to future ages."

No class of society has suffered more than men of letters from the revolution, which the most signal bad faith has so often accused them of having caused. Who had more to fear, more to lose, in a general overturning, than those who cultivated the domain of the arts and sciences, and whose labours could only hope for reward, from a nation where reigned peace, order and plenty? The men of letters, who were then called *philosophers*, had no doubt contributed by their writings to the reformation that was demanded by all good men from one extremity of France to the other, and which the progress of reason and cultivation had rendered indispensable. Almost all united, as they still are, in the wish for a constitutional monarchy, they made head against the storm, and opposed from time to time a feeble embankment to the revolutionary torrent in which Bailly, Roucher, Lavoisier, Chamfert, Condorcet, and many others, were carried away. In that period of crime and misery, but a single writer saved his life, at the expense of his honour, by writing, in wretched poetry, an apology for these horrid Saturnalia; the public expiation which he has made for it, is not of such a nature as to wash away the stain from his memory. The terror that weighed upon France, and which menaced, above all, the enlightened part of the nation, in vain restrained public opinion; some courageous writers, in contempt of the axe which hung above their heads, dared to make it heard. The Friend of Law* did not fear to accuse, in the open theatre, the chief of the most odious and shocking tyranny: "*Laws, and not blood,*" cried an author on the scenic, in the presence of a committee of tigers who wished *blood and not laws.*

It is at a still later period, among men of letters, that we must seek for examples of a courage perhaps still more rare; of that courage which resists the seductions of power, the fascination of glory, the promises of ambition, and the contagion of example. I shall name only Ducis: we may praise the dead with impunity.

Fortune is rarely the companion of the sons of Apollo. Fools find a hundred ways to her temple; men of letters walk thither by narrow paths, lose their way, or amuse themselves on the road, and scarcely ever arrive there. In default of riches, which, formerly at least, they did not covet, they may aspire to fame; and Tasso, reduced to that degree of indifference, that at night he prayed his cat to lend him light from her eyes,

"Non avendo candele per iscrivere i suoi versi!"

consoled himself for present misery, by thinking of his future triumph.

The love of letters, if not entirely extinct in France, is very much lessened. The only two branches, or rather the only two leaves of the tree of literature, on which the bees or (as others would call them) the insects of Parnassus, can still live, are newspapers and melo-dramas: all other means of existence fail them at a time when even romances are no longer read, and where the same disdain is shown in speaking of the fine verses of M. R*** and the *bouts-rimés* of M. N***.

Folly has an hereditary maxim, that men of letters are not suited to any employment, and that a man celebrated by works which suppose superior studies, knowledge and understanding, is therefore incapable of filling the place of a clerk. It is in vain to answer to this stale impertinence, "that men of letters, worthy of the name, are, on

* Title of a comedy of M. Laya, represented under the reign of terror, and which the author had cause to consider as his death warrant.

the contrary, fitted to any office; that there has never been a man in power who attained to any celebrity, without owing to them the greater part of his reputation; that they cannot name a report, a memoir, a preamble of any ordinance, the publication of which has excited attention, that is not their work." This reasoning will convince nobody; every body is interested in denying the evidence of it, even those who could prove it and who are restrained by delicacy from doing so. Perhaps we might now find, after diligent search, two men who have triumphed over a prejudice so favourable to ignorance; but I am not sure, that it was either to their character or their talents that they owed their success.

FROM THE ECLECTIC REVIEW.

Some Account of the Life of Rachel Wriothesley Lady Russell. By the Editor of Madame Du Deffand's Letters. Followed by a Series of Letters from Lady Russell to her Husband, William Lord Russell; from 1672 to 1682; together with some Miscellaneous Letters to and from Lady Russell. To which are added, Eleven Letters from Dorothy Sidney Countess of Sunderland, to George Saville Marquis of Halifax, in the year 1680. Published from the Originals in the possession of His Grace the Duke of Devonshire. 8vo. pp. 390. London, 1819.

The character of lady Russell has all the interest of romance. Her heroism, her saintly virtue, her devoted fidelity to her illustrious lord, combined with the recollection of the touching circumstances of his trial and death, have imparted to her name a never dying virtue, which

'Still smells and blossoms from the dust.'

And yet, no character could be more perfectly sober and unaffected, more thoroughly feminine and domestic,—we add, with pride, more entirely and peculiarly English. And in this consists much of the force of her example. She deserves to live in the remembrance of her countrywomen, as the ornament and model of the sex. To the unfortunate events in which her dearest interests were implicated, she owes, perhaps, all her celebrity; but then, she is not indebted to that unsought for celebrity any further than as the mere occasion of bringing her virtues into open day; and they reflect back upon the page of history more lustre than they borrow from fame. 'The peculiarity which is most striking in lady Russell,' remarks the noble biographer of her husband, 'is, that she was esteemed and consulted by her contemporaries, and has been admired and esteemed by posterity, without any ambitious efforts of her own. She neither sought to shine in the world by the extent of her capacity, nor to display, by affected retirement, the elevation of her soul; and when circumstances obliged her to come forward on the stage of history, she showed herself in the appropriate character of a wife and a mother! Hence,' he adds, 'we may believe, that the unobtrusive modesty of private life, contains many a female capable of giving the same example to her sex and to mankind.' Lady Russel's published letters, undistinguished by any extraordinary literary merit, have nevertheless an historical interest, and a charm arising from their simplicity and pathos, which make them deserve to rank among the classics of English literature. We are not indeed disposed to estimate them lightly, considered as epistolary compositions. Nothing can be more dignified, affecting, and every way admirable, than some of her letters to Dr. Fitzwilliam, written after the loss of her husband. Without making any pretensions to genius or wit, the writer displays in every period a fine understanding, and an elevation of mind which could have been derived only from the influence of genuine piety. Nor do her letters suffer by comparison with those of her distinguished correspondents. Those in the present volume are confessedly less intrinsically worthy of preservation: they are, many of them, the mere chitchat communications of the wife and the mother to her husband; and they require, in order to be understood, a familiar acquaintance with the incidents and personages to which they abound in passing allusions. As the letters of lady Russell, they cannot fail, however, to interest the reader; and the editor has been at the pains of supplying a running commentary, which will greatly add to his entertainment. They were originally sorted and arranged for the duke of Devonshire, from a mass of family papers. At the solicitation of several persons to whom the collection was shown, his grace was induced to allow of its publication; and the same friend who had undertaken the sorting of the papers was applied to, to draw up the biographical notice prefixed to the letters, which forms by no means the least interesting portion of the volume. The letters themselves are valuable, chiefly as they admit us to the interior recesses of the writer's character, exhibiting her in the captivating form of the most tender and attached of women.

'The strain of artless passion,' remarks the editor, 'of love exalted by every sentiment of the heart and of the understanding, which breathes through all those addressed to her lord, make them, certainly, the most touching *love letters* I ever read; while the almost prophetic exhortations they contain, both to him and herself, to be prepared for the loss of a happiness she appreciated so justly, give them a singular interest, when combined with her subsequent misfortune, and the deep and lasting manner in which she felt it.'

The following extract, from the third letter in the present collection, presents a striking specimen.

[*From London to Stratton, Sept.* 23, 1672.]

'If I were more fortunate in my expression, I could do myself more right when I own to my dearest Mr. Russell what real and perfect happiness I enjoy, from that kindness he allows me every day to receive new marks of, such as, in spite of the knowledge I have of my own wants, will not suffer me to mistrust I want his love, though I do merit, to so desirable a blessing; but, my best life, you that know so well how to love and to oblige, make my felicity entire, by believing my heart possessed with all the gratitude, honour, and passionate affection to your person, any creature is capable of, or can be obliged to; and this granted, what have I to ask,

but a continuance (if God see fit) of these present enjoyments? if not, a submission, without murmur, to his most wise dispensations and unerring providence; having a thankful heart for the years I have been so perfectly contented in: He knows best when we have had enough here: what I most earnestly beg from his mercy, is, that we both live so as, whichever goes first, the other may not sorrow as for one of whom they have no hope. Then let us cheerfully expect to be together to a good old age; if not, let us not doubt but he will support us under what trial he may inflict upon them. These are necessary meditations sometimes, that we may not be surprised above our strength by a sudden accident, being unprepared. Excuse me, if I dwell too long upon it; it is from my opinion that if we can be prepared for all conditions, we can with the greater tranquillity enjoy the present, which I hope will be long; though when we change, it will be for the better, I trust, through the merits of Christ. Let us daily pray it may be so, and then admit of no fears: death is the extremest evil against nature, it is true; let us overcome the immoderate fear of it, either to our friend or self, and then what light hearts may we live with?'—pp. 168-170.

Another letter, written only three years before lord Russell's murder, begins in this touchingly affectionate strain.

'My dearest heart, flesh and blood cannot have a truer and greater sense of their own happiness than your poor but honest wife has. I am glad you find Stratton so sweet; may you live to do so one fifty years more; and, if God pleases, I shall be glad I may keep your company most of these years, unless you wish other at any time; then I think I could willingly leave all in the world, knowing you would take care of our brats: they are both well, and your great one's letter she hopes came to you.'

And again, in the same year, she writes:

'Absent or present, my dearest life is equally obliging, and ever the earthly delight of my soul; it is my great care (or ought to be so), so to moderate my sense of happiness here, that when the appointed time comes of my leaving it, I may not be unwilling to forsake the one, or be in some measure prepared and fit to bear the trial of the other.'

'I hope we shall enjoy those dozen years he speaks of,' lady Russell writes, at another time, referring to a passage in one of her husband's letters; 'and cannot,' she adds, 'forbear wishing to double them: as one pleasure passes, I doubt not but we shall find new ones; our nursery will help to furnish us.' And within a few months of their tragical separation, she thus concludes a note dated from Stratton, the beloved scene of their domestic privacy.

'I know nothing new since you went; but I know, as certainly as I live, that I have been, for twelve years, as passionate a lover as ever woman was, and hope to be so one twelve years more; happy still, and entirely yours,

'R. Russell.'

Had these expressions of impassioned tenderness occurred in the letters of an unknown individual, it might have been unsafe to risk their exposure to the public. Doubts would have been started whether this affection was reciprocal, whether it was unfeigned, and whether it was as lasting in its fidelity, as ardent in its professions. But when it is known that they proceeded from the high minded and idolized wife of lord Russell, who assisted him at his trial, and in his last hours surprised and sustained him by her fortitude, and that during the forty years of her widowhood, her devotion to the memory of him she loved so fondly, continued to be the ruling passion of her life, all such surmises of a cold hearted scepticism are at once precluded; and the possible existence of a passionate attachment in both parties of the married state, as virtuous as it is happy, and as permanent as it is tender, this single fact were sufficient to establish. We cannot refrain from transcribing as a counterpart to the extracts we have given, a few passages from a letter written by lady Russell to Dr. Fitzwilliam, two months after the fatal catastrophe. Referring to those expressions in the doctor's letter, in which he had endeavoured to assist her in lifting up her mind to heaven for consolation, she replies:

'"I need not tell you, good Doctor, how little capable I have been of such an exercise as this. You will soon find how unfit I am still for it; since my yet disordered thoughts can offer me no other than such words as express the deepest sorrow, and confused as my yet *amazed* mind is. But such men as you, and particularly one so much my friend, will, I know, bear with my weakness, and compassionate my distress, as you have already done, by your good letter, and excellent prayer. * * * * * "You, that knew us both, and how we lived, must allow I have just cause to bewail my loss. I know it is common to others to lose a friend; but to have lived with such a one, it may be questioned how few can glory in the like happiness, so, consequently, lament the like loss. Who can but shrink from such a blow! * * * * Lord, let me understand the reason of these dark and wounding providences, that I sink not under the discouragement of my own thoughts! I know I have deserved my punishment, and will be silent under it; but yet secretly my heart mourns, too sadly, I fear, and cannot be comforted, because I have not the dear companion and sharer of all my joys and sorrows. I want him to talk with, to walk with, to eat, and sleep with. All these things are irksome to me. The day unwelcome, and the night so too; all company and meals I would avoid, if it might be: yet all this is, that I enjoy not the world in my own way; and this sure hinders my comfort. When I see my children before me, I remember the pleasure he took in them: this makes my heart shrink. Can I regret his quitting a lesser good for a greater? Oh! if I did but steadfastly believe, I could not be dejected; for I will not injure myself to say, I offer my mind any inferior consolation to supply this loss. No; I most willingly forsake this world, this vexatious, troublesome world, in which I have no other business, but to rid my soul of sin, secure by faith and a good conscience my eternal interests, with patience and courage bear my eminent misfortune, and ever hereafter be above the smiles and frowns of fortune."' pp. 45—47.

In an unfinished paper, 'the writing of which,' we are informed, 'denotes the trembling hand of extreme old age,' she thus, in reviewing her

life for a devotional purpose, adverts to her irreparable bereavement, and to the subsequent loss of her son.

'"Vanity cleaves to me, I fear, O Lord! in all I say, in all I do. In all I suffer, proud, not enduring to slights or neglects, subject to envy the good parts of others, even as to worldly gifts. Failing in my duty to my superiors; apt to be soon angry with, and without cause too often; and by it may have grieved those that desired to please me, or provoked others to sin by my rash anger. Not ready to own any advantage I may have received by good advice or example. Not well satisfied if I have not all the respect I expected, even from my superiors. Such has been the pride of my naught heart, I fear, and also neglect in my performances due to my superiors, children, friends, or servants—I heartily lament my sin. But, alas! in my most dear husband's troubles, seeking help from man, but finding none. His life was taken away, and so sorely was my spirit wounded even without prospect of future comfort or consolation—the more faulty in me, having three dear children to perform my duty to, with thankfulness for such a blessing left me, under so heavy a dispensation as I felt the loss of him to be. But, alas! how feeble did I find myself both then, and also poorly prepared to bear the loss of my dear child and only son, in 1711.

'"If I carry my sorrow to the grave, O Lord, in such mercy let it not be imputed as sin in me! His death was a piercing sorrow to me, yet thou hast supported me, Lord! even in a very old age, and freer from bodily pains and sickness than most feel—I desire thankfully to recollect."' pp. 148—149.

Of lady Russell's life previous to her second marriage, but few particulars have been preserved. She was the second daughter and coheiress of Thomas Wriothesley, earl of Southampton, by his first wife, Rachel de Ruvigny, whose brother, the marquis de Ruvigny, was long the head of the Protestant interest in France, as deputy general of the reformed churches. She was born about the year 1636; and, in her seventeenth or eighteenth year, was given in marriage to Francis, lord Vaughan, eldest son of the earl of Carberry, by whom, in 1665, she had one child, who died in his infancy. She became a widow, it should seem, very soon after, probably in the following year; for in 1667, she appears to have received the addresses of Mr. Russell, then only a younger brother. They were married about the end of 1669. Her eldest daughter, afterwards duchess of Devonshire, was born in 1674; her second daughter, afterwards duchess of Rutland, in 1676; and 'her domestic happiness seemed to be completed by the birth of a son,' in November, 1680. The happy years which she passed with lord Russell, were divided between their summer residence at Stratton, to which she always adverts with pleasure, and their winters at Southampton House. After the dreadful events of 1683, she remained for some time at Woburn, the seat of her father-in-law, the duke of Bedford, struggling in solitude, to arm her mind for the duties in order to discharge which she was reconciled to life.

'"It is possible I grasp at too much of this kind for a spirit so broke by affliction; for I am so jealous that time, or necessity, the ordinary abaters of all violent passions, (nay, even employment or company of such friends as I have left,) should do that, my religion or reason ought to do, as makes me covet the best advices, and use all methods to obtain such a relief as I can ever hope for: a silent submission to this severe and terrible providence, without any ineffective unwillingness to bear what I must suffer; and such a victory over myself, that when once allayed, immoderate passions may not be apt to break out again upon fresh occasions and accidents, offering to my memory that dear object of my desires which must happen every day, I may say every hour of the longest life I can live, that so, when I must return into the world, so far as to act that part incumbent upon me in faithfulness I owe as much as can be due to man, it may be with greater strength of spirits, and grace to live a stricter life of holiness to my God."' pp. 55, 56.

From a letter addressed to her at this period by bishop Burnet, it appears that she had taken the resolution to devote so much of her time to the education of her daughters, as that they should need no other governess; and this resolution, there is reason to believe, she well fulfilled. Her feelings on the prospect of revisiting 'that now desolate place, Stratton,' are touchingly expressed. From London too, she shrinks back, as, 'in thought, a place of terror' to her: 'but,' she adds, 'having so many months mourned the substance, I think (by God's assistance) the shadows will not sink me.' After this period, lady Russell's published letters supply her biographer with the chief materials for the memoir of her character. The prince and princess of Orange had, through the medium of Dykevelt, the minister plenipotentiary from the states of Holland, communicated to lady Russell the lively interest they took in her loss, regarding her lord's death as a great blow to the interests of the Protestant religion. On their accession to the throne, one of the first acts of the government was, the reversal of lord Russel's attainder; and honours were showered on the two families to which lady Russell was the most nearly allied, more than sufficient to elate a person of ordinary mind. It appears, however, from the printed letters, that the publicity and length of the parliamentary proceedings which were instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the advisers and promoters of the atrocious measures of 1683, were a severe trial to lady Russell, and served rather to depress her feelings. She herself now became the object of universal respect and consideration. We find Tillotson applying for her sanction of his acceptance of the dignity offered him by king William; and lady Sunderland, the wife of one who had been a principal minister and adviser of Charles II. at the time of lord Russel's execution, now soliciting her intercession.

'Such, indeed, was the deference paid to her opinion, and the importance attached to her good will, that even the confident mind of the duchess of Marlborough thought it necessary to assure herself of lady Russel's approbation, in the critical juncture of advising the princess Anne to acquiesce in the settlement of the crown on the prince of Orange. From lady Russell we find no intimation of this flattering reference; but the duchess of Marlborough her-

self records, that she could not satisfy her own mind till she "had consulted with several persons of undisputed wisdom and integrity, and particularly with lady Russell of Southampton House, and with Dr. Tillotson, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury." Both before and after Tillotson's exaltation and his dignity, we find him giving a detailed account to lady Russell of the intended preferments in the church, and assuring her of the respect which the king was disposed to pay both to her wishes and those of lord Bedford, in his nominations to preferment in London.'

There appears to be no other foundation, however, than this circumstance, for Madame de Staël's representation, that lady Russell was consulted by the ministers of king William, and by queen Anne herself, on political measures. The author of the present biographical notice adverts also to another erroneous statement, namely, that lady Russell wept herself blind. Her ladyship's complaint proved to be a cataract on her left eye, for which she underwent, in 1695, the operation of couching, with success. In 1700, her son succeeded, on the death of his grandfather, to the dukedom, and was appointed, as soon as he was of age, to the lieutenancies of the three counties of Bedford, Middlesex and Cambridge, which had been held by the former duke. Her maternal anxieties seemed now to be rewarded to the utmost; but she was destined to have all her sorrows renewed by his sudden removal in the midst of health and the vigour of life. He fell a sacrifice to the smallpox in the thirty-first year of his age. Lady Russell attained the advanced age of eighty-six. Of her last illness and death, no particulars have been preserved. She expired at Southampton House, Sept. 29. 1723. The memoir closes with the following paragraph.

'May the writer of the foregoing pages be allowed to hope, while fast sinking to the grave that must shortly close on an insignificant existence—may she be allowed to hope, *that* existence rescued from the imputation of perfect inutility, by having thus endeavoured to develope, and hold up to the admiration of her countrywomen, so bright an example of female excellence as the character of lady Russell? a character whose celebrity was purchased by the sacrifice of no feminine virtue, and whose principles, conduct, and sentiments, equally well adapted to every condition of her sex, will in all be found the surest guides to peace, honour and happiness.'

In the Miscellaneous Letters will be found an admirable letter, highly worthy of preservation, addressed by lady Russell to her son, the duke of Bedford. It is too long to extract, but we recommend it to the particular notice of the reader. The letter from Mr. Howe to lady Russell, is interesting as being characteristic of the writer.

Lady Sunderland's letters to lord Halifax, consist of the political gossip of the day, which the old lady duteously set herself to collect and transmit to her son-in-law. They are entertaining enough, but of little value. Lady Sunderland was the Saccharissa of Waller; and she thus unceremoniously introduces the poet's name: 'Mrs. Middleton and I have lost *Old Waller;* he is gone away frightened.' 'My lord Russell' is once referred to, in the slang language of the court party, as one of lord Shaftesbury's 'blind followers.' 'Mutineers' is the term generally bestowed on the country party in these letters. Lord Sunderland, her son, is spoken of, and commended, as having advised the issuing of an order of council to the judges, in 1680, to convict all papists strictly charged, and not to prosecute other dissenters from the church of England; an order, however, which the judges knew better than to obey. In a subsequent letter, she says: 'He (lord Sunderland) told me he had heard judge Weston had not performed the orders he had to make a distinction between the papists and the fanatics.' The events of that period show how little the king was disposed to sanction any measures for the relief of the non-conformists. The editor has been indefatigable in supplying illustrative notes.

The following remarks on the progress of science in the present age, form the conclusion of an article in the last Quarterly Review, on the popular mythology of the middle ages.

Those who are most strenuous in extolling the improvement of the present age, are usually at the same time the most earnest in deploring the obstinacy of mankind in refusing to adopt the opinions which they advocate, opinions which, according to their representation, are either the cause or the consequence of the intellectual pre-eminence of modern times. Praises are lavished on the "enlightened world" collectively, which are denied to all its component parts save one. Under pretence of lauding our contemporaries, we are simply whispering a tribute of flattery into our own ears. And the merits with which we are so willing to invest the universal age, expand from our own egotism.

Nor even where the progress of knowledge is most cheering and undeniable, should we allow it to fill us with overweening glory, because we are then too often tempted to indulge in bitterness, or even anger, towards those who, as we imagine, are disabled by their mental inferiority or ignorance from contributing to the causes of our exultation. Calm reflection will teach us to view the trophies which have been gained by the human intellect with less complacency, but at the same time we may perhaps become subdued into a greater degree of toleration towards its failings. Science has triumphed over matter. Fire impels the vessel along the hostile element. The aeronaut soars above the eagle in the thin expanse, and the firm metals torn from the bowels of the earth, fume into gas at the touch of the chemist, and wing him on his way. The triple ray of the sun has been unravelled. We ascend in contemplation

on his beams, and bathe in the central flood of light and life. And we have weighed in the balance the orbs which circle on the dark verge of our universe. Bounds however have been prescribed to us, and we must not sorrow, if we who are placed a little below the angels, are not allowed to pass them. There is a truer philosophy from which we learn that our present state of being is not the existence, in which we are to advance in an unchecked career of excellence. Faculties of miraculous energy and force have been given to the human mind, but they have been imprinted on dust and ashes, and united to imperfections, reminding us that they are not our own; and that we are heedless of the will, and unthankful to the goodness of the infinite intelligence from whom they have been derived, if we merely deem those gifts to be subservient to the poor, proud selfishness of morality. The learning of one generation becomes folly in the next. We change our baubles, but our infirmity remains the same; and if there are immortal spectators of the fleeting drama of human life, they witness in every century the same peevish actors though in other garbs, and the same brief plot though slightly diversified by its interludes. Great, yet limited powers have been bestowed on man; but when he confides presumptuously in the strength which he thus attains, when the science which he derives from the study of second causes lulls him into a forgetfulness of the only beginning of all wisdom, he is betrayed into an imbecility more lamentable than ignorance, and even the truth deceives him. But we must cease. Thoughts are arising which we did not anticipate, and upon which we dare not dwell; for we pleased ourselves when we began to write these pages in carelessness and in sport. And the recollections of levity should be dispelled, before it is fitting that we should cherish the feelings which we are now imparting, not by our words, but by our silence. It was forbidden even to tread the pavement of the sanctuary with the sandals which had clothed the feet, when they had walked in any paths except those contained in the hallowed precinct of the temple.

THE PROMPTER—NO. II.

Green wood will last longer than dry.

So will *straw* for cattle last longer than *hay*. But the question is, which will make the *best* fire and *most* heat. Ask the distiller—the brickmaker—the potter. These people will tell you that the dry wood will make *more* heat, as well as give it more steadily than green. It is a slovenly practice to burn green wood—You lay a pile of green wood over the fire—it will not burn—You get kindlers, which make a blaze—you blow it with the bellows—it smokes; after half an hour's work, the juices of the wood are so far evaporated, that the wood just begins to burn. For some time you have a roasting fire. Then the fire decays, and, the room being well heated, you neglect the fire, till a few coals only remain. Then you pile on another supply of green wood, which requires another half hour's labour, while you are freezing with cold.

The Prompter says, burn dry wood, except for logs—put on but a stick or two at once—this will make a fire immediately, without a bellows, and without trouble. As soon as the fire subsides, feed it again with a single stick—thus keeping the air of your room of uniform temperance. This will heat your room *better* with *less* wood.

Cut your wood in January and February, when it has the least sap—cut it up or saw it, and lay it in your wood house. Then you will not be vexed for wood in summer, nor with smoking away the sap of green wood with bellows blowing.

"But I have no wood house." Then you want a very necessary building. If you *cannot* cover your wood, be content to pile it in the open air, six months before burning.

BY DR. FRANKLIN.

That Self-denial is not the Essence of Virtue.

From the Pennsylvania Gazette, No. 324, Feb. 18, 1735.

It is commonly asserted that without self-denial there is no virtue, and that the greater the self-denial, the greater the virtue.

If it were said, that he who cannot deny himself any thing he inclines to, though he knows it will be to his hurt, has not the virtue of resolution or fortitude, it would be intelligible enough, but as it stands it seems obscure or erroneous.

Let us consider some of the virtues singly.

If a man has no inclination to wrong people in his dealings, if he feels no temptation to it, and therefore never does it; can it be said that he is not a just man? If he is a just man, has he not the virtue of justice?

If to a certain man idle diversions have

nothing in them that is tempting, and therefore he never relaxes his application to business, for their sake; is he not an industrious man? Or, has he not the virtue of industry?

I might in like manner instance in all the rest of the virtues; but to make the thing short, as it is certain, that the more we strive against the temptation to any vice, and practise the contrary virtue, the weaker will that temptation be, and the stronger will be that habit, till at length the temptation has no force, or entirely vanishes; does it follow from thence, that in our endeavours to overcome vice, we grow continually less and less virtuous, till at length we have no virtue at all?

If self-denial be the essence of virtue, then it follows, that the man, who is naturally temperate, just, &c. is not virtuous; that but in order to be virtuous, he must in spite of his natural inclinations, wrong his neighbours, and eat and drink, &c. to excess.

But perhaps it may be said, that by the word virtue in the above assertion, is meant merit; and so it should stand thus: without self-denial there is no merit, and the greater the self-denial, the greater the merit.

The self-denial here meant, must be when our inclinations are towards vice, or else it would still be nonsense.

By merit, is understood desert, and when we say a man merits, we mean that he deserves praise or reward.

We do not pretend to merit any thing of God, for he is above our services; and the benefits he confers on us, are the effects of his goodness and bounty.

All our merit then is with regard to one another, and from one to another.

Taking then the assertion as it last stands.

If a man does me service from a natural benevolent inclination, does he deserve less of me than another, who does me the like kindness against his inclination?

If I have two journeymen, one naturally industrious, the other idle, but both perform a day's work equally good, ought I to give the latter the most wages?

Indeed lazy workmen are commonly observed to be more extravagant in their demands than the industrious, for if they have not more for their work, they cannot live as well; but though it be true to a proverb, that lazy folks take the most pains, does it follow that they deserve the most money?

If you were to employ servants in affairs of trust, would you not bid more for one you knew was naturally honest, than for one naturally roguish, but who has lately acted honestly? for currents whose natural channel is dammed up, till the new course is by time worn sufficiently deep, and become natural, are apt to break their banks. If one servant is more valuable than another, has he not more merit than the other? and yet this is not on account of superior self-denial.

Is a patriot not praiseworthy, if public spirit is natural to him?

Is a pacing horse less valuable for being a natural pacer?

Nor in my opinion, has any man less merit for having in general natural virtuous inclinations.

The truth is, that temperance, justice, charity, &c. are virtues, whether practised with, or against our inclinations, and the man who practises them, merits our love and esteem; and self-denial is neither good nor bad, but as it is applied; he that denies a vicious inclination, is virtuous in proportion to his resolution, but the most perfect virtue is above all temptation, such as the virtue of the saints in heaven; and he who does a foolish, indecent, or wicked thing, merely because it is contrary to his inclination (like some mad enthusiasts I have read of who ran about naked, under the notion of taking up the cross) is not practising the reasonable science of virtue, but is a lunatic.

From the N. Y. Commercial Advertiser, June 24.

PAUL JONES.

It is a matter of some surprise, in this age of book making, that the world has never been presented with an accurate and authentic account of the life and exploits of this eccentric and chivalrous officer. In the days of our boyhood, we recollect to have read a little six-penny account of his adventures; and many a time and oft, have we listened with wonder and admiration to tales of the superior prowess and desperate courage displayed by him while scouring the coasts of England and Scotland, with his little armament, during the American revolution. But we have never been able to learn more of his real life and character, than what is to be gleaned from tradition, or from the pages of American history, where we believe his name occasionally appears.

An opportunity is now presented to the American public, to avail themselves of a full, authentic, and probably excellent history of the life and transactions of this brave and extraordinary man. At the last meet-

ing of the New York Historical Society, the following extract of a letter from a lady, (a niece of the hero of whom we are speaking,) dated Edinburgh, March 29, 1820, to her correspondent in this city, was communicated by Mr. Pintard—

"I have still another favour to beg of you. It has long been to me a matter of wonder, that America has never shown any disposition to give to the world the history of those brave men who were the first assertors of her rights, and to whom she owes that independence, her sons seem so much disposed to be proud of. I have in my possession a number of important papers, that belonged to my late uncle, the chevalier Paul Jones. They consist of his correspondence with Washington, Jefferson, Dr. Franklin, Adams, the duke de la Rochefoucault, La Fayette, and in fact, with all the eminent characters connected with the American revolution. I have either the originals, or else authentic copies extracted from the records of Congress. These, with a memoir of his life, and an account of his campaign in Russia, will make three large octavo volumes. I have been advised to publish them in England, and would have done so, had money been my object. But they contain some bitter reflections against the British government, which, in that case, it would have been thought necessary to suppress, and of which I apprehend the suppression would have essentially injured the work—my principal motive for giving them to the world, being to exhibit my uncle's character in a just point of view. The favour I have to ask of you, is, to let me know if there is any bookseller in New York, who would undertake to publish them, and what I may expect for them. There is one thing, however, *must be insisted upon*, which is, that they are not to be garbled, but are to be given to the world *just as they are*, without either *adding* or *diminishing*. You will perhaps think me very unreasonable to expect you to inform me, what I am to get for a work which you have not to show to the publisher. But understand me right. I do not expect that you will be able to name a *certain sum;* but only that you may, perhaps, after inquiry, have it in your power to give me a hint of what it is probable I might receive. If you will have the goodness to assist me in this affair, the papers shall be sent to you addressed as you shall direct, and to be disposed of as you think best, with only *this one provision—that they must be published as they are.*"

The letter was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. W. L. Stone, J. Pintard, and Dr. J. W. Francis, to ascertain if possible, whether it would be practicable to publish the memoirs of the chevalier Paul Jones in this country, and to report the result.

We are sensible that the present is a period of general pecuniary embarrassment throughout the country, and we are sensible also, that the country has been so overrun with subscriptions, that many can hardly endure the sight of a new proposal. But it does appear to us notwithstanding these obstacles, that an enterprising bookseller might undertake the publication of this work, not only with perfect safety, but with a fair prospect of realizing a handsome profit. From what we have heard of the talents and character of the fair author of the foregoing letter, [who we presume to be the writer of the memoirs] we have no doubt that the work will be found highly interesting and valuable. The documents it will contain, must of themselves possess great interest, as containing many curious facts, have probably never been developed, and also the views and feeling of their distinguished authors, during those days of peril and alarm.

It may well be said of Paul Jones, that he was the father of our naval glory. And who is there, that does not desire to become familiar with the life of the first American commander, who dared to grapple ship to ship with Albion—who in fact entered the Thames, and assailed the lion in his den?—We should suppose that all the officers of our navy, and in fact all the principal characters in the United States, would eagerly patronize a work like the one proposed.

☞ Propositions from booksellers may be addressed to the chairman of the committee.

TO A YOUNG LADY.

Matrimonial Rules and Maxims.

1. When a young gentleman makes you an offer, hold yourself flattered by his preference, and be proportionably grateful.

2. If you accept him (which we will suppose of course), study his temper and inclinations, that you may better accommodate your own to them.

3. After marriage, obey him cheerfully, even though you think him in error: it is better that he should do wrong in what he commands, than that you should do wrong in objecting to it.

4. If he flatters you, do not forget that it is but flattery.

5. If you see any imperfections in your husband (which there may be,) do not pride yourself on your penetration in discovering them, but on your forbearance in not pointing them out; strive to show no superiority, but in good temper.

6. Bear in mind continually, that you are weak and dependent; and even if you are beautiful, that it adds to your weakness and dependence.

7. If you displease him, be the first to conciliate and to mend; there is no degradation in seeking peace, or in showing that you love your husband better than your triumph.

8. If misfortunes assail you, remember that you ought to sustain your share of the burden; imitate your husband's fortitude, or show your own for his imitation.

9. When you rise in the morning, resolve to be cheerful for the day; let your smiles dispel his frowns.

10. Take pride in concealing your husband's infirmities from others, rather than in proclaiming them: you will only be laughed at by all your acquaintances if you tell his faults to one.

11. Endeavour rather to save than to spend your husband's money; if his fortune be large, strive to preserve it; if small, to increase it.

12. Be not importunate or obtrusive in your fondness, and choose proper occasions for your caresses, lest they prove wearisome.

13. Finally, recollect always that God has made you subject to him, and that he is your natural guardian and protector; that you owe your husband no less honour than love, and not less love than obedience.

[*Bost. Ev. Gaz.*

How difficult it is for people to leave off old habits, and to change opinions which have been taught them from their childhood! A gentleman met a man going to mill with a bag of grain on his back, and another bag tied to the former and hanging down before. Seeing that the latter had scarcely any thing in it, he asked the man what he had there so heavy as to balance the grain. Stones, sir. And what are you going to do with the stones? Nothing; but they save me the trouble of holding the grain bag with my hands. But would not it do as well to put half the grain in front, and to throw away the stones? The man objected that he was used to the other way, but he was persuaded to make the experiment. Next week, however, he was met again with the stones in the bag, and said that he found it easier to carry the grain as his father carried it before him.

Varnish for Wood.—The Italian cabinet work is varnished in the following manner. Saturate the surface with oil, and then apply a solution of gum arabic in boiling alcohol.

Poetry.

To the Editors of the National Recorder.

There are doubtless many of your readers who have never seen the beautiful address to the planet which now "decks our western skies," written by Richard Nesbitt, mariner, who has long been in the Pennsylvania Hospital. Independently of the circumstances of its author, his many afflictions, and his present state of mind, the pathetic elegance of the ode will powerfully appeal to every heart. The lines which follow it have never been previously published. ORMOND.

THE EVENING STAR.

O Venus! lovely evening star!
Diffusing precious light afar!
How much superior is thy fame
To hers, from whom thou tak'st thy name!
She leadeth hapless man astray;
Thou lightest wanderers on their way.

The mantle of the dark was spread,
The tempest roar'd around my head,
As wearied, pensive, and alone,
Through dreary wilds I journied on,
Imploring for some gentle ray,
To light a wanderer on his way.

When soon, with gladness and surprise,
I saw thee deck the western skies,
Cheering the dismal gloom of night
With grateful, friendly, mod'rate light,
Complete as all the glare of day,
To light a wanderer on his way.

O thus, should anxious cares infest,
Or jarring passions rend the breast,
And in dark conflict struggling roll,
May Reason open on the soul!
And with serene and sober ray,
Conduct the wanderer on his way.

Let others spend their time in vain,
And give intemperance the rein,
Nor in their mirthful feasts control
The banquet and the midnight bowl;
But those impure delights obey
Which but mislead the wanderer's way:

To them their pleasures I resign;
Be Piety and Reason mine:
With these—no other light we need;
These best man's destin'd path shall lead

To the cold tomb of kindred clay,
Where ends the wanderer's earthly way!

LINES

On Nesbitt's Ode to the Evening Star.

Bright Star of Eve! thy lustre shed,
And sooth that spirit's cheerless sigh,
Round his sad path thy glories spread,
And gently whisper PEACE IS NIGH!
"May Reason open on his soul!"
To Heav'n each feeling heart can pray—
And bid the tide of rapture roll,
And light the wanderer on his way.

Divested long of her pure beam,
Toss'd on the murky waves of life,
To him, alas! their troubled stream
Has prov'd a scene of wo and strife.
Emblem of happier light afar,
Which points the heart to brighter day,
We bless thy orb! sweet Evening Star!
It guides the wanderer on his way.

When Reason's aid and thine shall fail,
Mid the deep shades of Death's abode,
And awful clouds your lights shall veil,
A *Star* shall cheer that darkest road—
O'er his lone soul shall pour the light
Which mildly shines! Religion's ray!
'Tis *this* can chase the glooms of night,
And lead the wanderer on his way.

Record.

The List of Acts published below, has been omitted in season, being crowded out by a press of matter; but it is thought it will still be interesting to our readers. The editors of the National Intelligencer deserve great credit for the care and attention with which they have collected and digested it.

From the National Intelligencer, May 24.

Public Acts of the Sixteenth Congress, First Session.

A list of the titles of the principal acts, resolutions and treaties, approved and ratified at the first session of the sixteenth Congress, which was begun and held in the city of Washington, on Monday the sixth day of December, 1819, and ended on the fifteenth day of May, 1820; with a brief abstract of the provisions of each law; together with the branch of the legislature in which each act, &c. originated and the dates of approval.

ALABAMA.

1. Resolution declaring the admission of the state of Alabama into the union. (Senate, 14th December, 1819.)

Alabama admitted into the union on an equal footing with the original states.

APPROPRIATIONS.

1. An act making a partial appropriation for the military service of the United States for the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty. (House, 14th January, 1820.)

For subsistence, armories and arrearages.

2. An act in addition to the "Act making appropriations for the support of the navy of the United States for the year one thousand eight hundred and nineteen." (House, 14th January, 1820.)

For pay and subsistence of officers and pay of seamen, provisions, medicines, hospital stores, repairs of vessels, contingent expenses, salaries of agents and surveyors under the act reserving public lands to supply timber for naval purposes.

3. An act making appropriations to supply the deficiency in the appropriations heretofore made for the completion of the repairs of the north and south wings of the capitol, for finishing the President's house, and the erection of two new executive offices. (House, 10th February, 1820.)

75,000 dollars for north and south wings; 13,174 dollars 66 cents for President's house; 11,015 dollars 71 cents for new executive offices.

4. An act making appropriations for the support of the navy of the United States for the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty. (House, 17th March, 1820.)

For pay and subsistence of officers, and pay of seamen, provisions, medicines, repairs of vessels, store rent, freight, enlistment of seamen, improvement of navy yards, docks, &c. for shell and shot, pay and subsistence of marine corps, &c. and for military stores.

5. An act making appropriations for the support of government for the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty. (House, 11th April, 1820.)

This is the usual act for the support of the civil list.

6. An act making further appropriations for continuing the work upon the centre building of the capitol, and other public buildings. (House, April 11th, 1820.)

For the centre building 111,769 dollars; for painting inside the north and south wings, and alterations, 2,867 dollars; for graduating ground round the capitol, &c. 5,591 dollars; repairs, &c. in the President's house, 1,100 dollars; alterations and improvements in the Senate chamber, 2,400 dollars.

7. An act making appropriations for the military service of the United States for the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty. (House, 14th April, 1820.)

For pay of the army, subsistence, bounties, and premiums, for recruits, &c. clothing, the medical and hospital department, quarter master's department, contingencies of the army, forage for officers, fortifications, military academy at West Point, arrearages, cannon and shot, national armories, ordnance department, completion of arsenals, balance due certain states, invalid and revolutionary pensioners, widows and orphans, Indian department, Indian boundary lines, survey of water courses, survey, maps and charts of the Ohio, Mississippi, and for the public road through the Creek nation.

8. An act to provide for the expense of surveying certain parts of the coast of North Carolina, and for other purposes. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

This act appropriates 5,000 dollars to defray the expenses of survey; and also appropriates the sums necessary under the act for the relief of persons who paid duties on goods imported

into Castine, and an act for the relief of Walter Channing.

9. An act making appropriations for carrying into effect the treaties concluded with the Chippewa and Kickapoo nation of Indians. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

1000 dollars in silver, annually, forever, to the Chippewas, 2000 dollars for other stipulations, 2000 dollars annually, for ten years, to carry into effect the treaty with the Kickapoos.

10. An act to provide for repairing the roof of the general post office, and procure an engine for the protection of said building. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

The roof to be repaired and slated, and a fire engine to be procured and kept. Not exceeding 6,020 dollars, appropriated out of the postage money.

11. An act in addition to the act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of government for the year one thousand eight hundred and twenty," and for other purposes. (House, 17th May, 1820.)

For additional compensation to members of Congress; rebuilding wharf and repairing warehouses on Staten Island; and for graduating Capitol Square and planting trees.

ARKANSAS.

1. An act relative to the Arkansas territory. (Senate, 21st April, 1820.)

The act of the 4th of June, 1812, providing for the government of Missouri, as modified by the act of 29th April, 1816, in force in the territory of Arkansas, &c.

ARMY.

1. An act further to regulate the medical department of the army. (Senate, 8th May, 1820.)

The apothecary, and assistant apothecaries-general, to give bonds, with security.

BOUNDARIES.

1. Resolution, giving the consent of Congress to a compact concluded between the states of Kentucky and Tennessee, for the settlement of their boundary line. (House, 12th May, 1820.)

Consent of Congress given to the compact made at Frankfort on the 2d Feb. 1820.

CENSUS.

1. An act to provide for taking the fourth census, or enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, and for other purposes. (House, 14th March, 1820.)

This act is similar to the several acts heretofore passed, authorizing the 1st, 2d and 3d census, with additional provisions for discriminating in the case of slaves, and for the special enumeration of free coloured persons, in classes, according to age. The act also provides for taking an account of manufacturing establishments and manufactures. The whole to be performed by the marshals and their assistants, under the direction of the secretary of state. Upon the completion of the returns, 1500 copies are to be printed for the use of Congress.

CLERKS.

1. An act supplementary to the act, entitled "An act to regulate and fix the compensation of the clerks in the different offices," passed the 20th April, 1818. (House, 14th Jan. 1820.)

The secretary of the treasury may continue to employ nine additional clerks in the office of the third auditor, and three additional clerks in the office of the second comptroller, until 31st Dec. 1820.

2. An act to increase the number of clerks in the department of war. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

The secretary authorized to employ six additional clerks; and 6,000 dollars appropriated to pay them. The act in force for one year.

COLUMBIA, DISTRICT OF.

1. An act further to extend the charter of the city of Washington. (Senate, 28th February, 1820.)

The acts incorporating the inhabitants of Washington continued until the 3d of March, 1821, unless sooner repealed. See *below*, 3.

2. An act to increase the allowance of the judges of the orphan court, in the counties of Washington and Alexandria. (Senate, 1st May, 1820.)

Each judge allowed $6, for each day he attends.

3. An act to incorporate the inhabitants of the city of Washington. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

This is a new act of incorporation, with a more extensive grant of powers to the corporations than formerly, for the improvement of the metropolis and the conservation of public morals. The principal alterations are, the election of the mayor, for two years, by the people: the vesting the powers of a justice of the peace in each alderman; and a new division of the city into wards. The act provides for the sale of real property, the taxes on which have remained unpaid for two years.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

1. An act to provide for obtaining accurate statements of the foreign commerce of the United States. (Senate, 10th February, 1820.)

The register of the treasury, under direction of the secretary, to prepare statistical accounts of the commerce of the United States; to be laid before Congress. These accounts are to comprehend goods exported and imported, and all navigation employed in foreign trade. The exports and imports, to and from each country, and their values, are to be stated, together with the country of the exported product or manufacture, and the respective values. The navigation is to be stated in such a way, as to exhibit, separately, the tonnage of vessels of the United States, and of foreign vessels employed in the trade between the United States and each foreign country, and the amount of tonnage belonging to each foreign country engaged in such trade. To effect this purpose, manifests, &c. are to be delivered and verified accordingly; the collectors of the customs are to keep corresponding accounts, and make quarterly returns to the register. The secretary of the treasury is to give directions and to prescribe rules and forms, which are not to be contrary to law. This act goes into operation on the 30th of September, 1820.

An act designating the ports within which only foreign armed vessels shall be permitted to enter. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

After first July, 1820, foreign armed vessels cannot enter any harbour belonging to the United States, excepting Portland, Boston, New London, New York, Philadelphia, Norfolk, Smith-

ville, (N. C.), Charleston and Mobile; unless forced in by distress, pursuit of an enemy, &c. The President may employ the land and naval forces and militia to enforce the provisions of this act, and to prevent foreign armed vessels loitering in waters of the United States, not lying in the direct course to or from the ports appointed.

An act supplementary to an act, entitled "An act concerning navigation." (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

The first section of this act closes the ports of the United States after the 30th of September next, to British vessels coming from Lower Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, St. Johns or Cape Breton, Bermuda, the Bahamas, and Caicos, &c. The 2d section requires bond from British vessels not to convey productions of the United States to the prohibited places. The 3d section prohibits the importation, after the 30th September next, from the interdicted places, of articles unless of the growth, &c. of the particular place.

CONGRESS.

1. An act for apportioning the representatives in the seventeenth Congress, to be elected in the states of Massachusetts and Maine, and for other purposes. (Senate, 7th April, 1820.)

Massachusetts to choose only 13 representatives in the 17th Congress, and Maine seven.—In case of the vacation of the seat of a representative in the 16th Congress, elected from Massachusetts, being an inhabitant of Maine, his successor is to be an inhabitant of Maine also.

An act fixing the time for the next meeting of Congress. (House, 13th May, 1820.)

The next meeting of Congress to be on the second Monday of November, 1820.

CRIMES AND PUNISHMENTS.

1. An act to continue in force "An act to protect the commerce of the United States and punish the crime of piracy," and also to make further provision for punishing the crime of piracy. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

1st, 2d, 3d and 4th sections of the act of third March, 1819, continued for two years, &c. Robbery on board a vessel, or upon ship's company, on the high seas, or on tide water, declared piracy, and punishable with death. Landing from a piratical vessel, and committing robbery, declared piracy, and punishable with death. Citizens seizing negroes on foreign shores, for the slave trade, &c. adjudged pirates, and to suffer death. Citizens on board foreign vessels, and any person on board American vessels, being concerned in detaining negroes, &c. not held to labour, &c. or transferring them from vessel to vessel, &c. in the slave trade declared pirates and to suffer death.

DOCUMENTS.

1. An act authorizing the transmission of certain documents free of postage. (Senate, 14th December, 1819.)

Members, delegates, secretary and clerk, may transmit any document, printed by order, during the 16th Congress, to any post office.

2. Resolution for the further distribution of the journal of the convention which formed the constitution of the United States. (19th January, 1820.)

Members of Congress, President, heads of departments, judges, colleges, &c. to be furnished with copies.

3. Resolution to authorize the publication of part of the secret journal of Congress, under the articles of confederation. (House, 21st April, 1820.)

One thousand copies of the secret journal, papers, and documents, heretofore considered confidential, from 1783 to 1789, to be published under the direction of the President.

4. Resolution for the distribution of certain copies of the journal of the convention which formed the constitution. (House, 8th May, 1820.)

A copy to be sent to each member of the convention now alive.

DUTIES.

1. An act to remit the duties on a statue of George Washington. (Senate, 24th February, 1820.)

Duties on a statue of George Washington remitted in North Carolina.

2. An act to impose a new tonnage duty on French ships and vessels. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

After the 1st of July, 1820, the tonnage on French vessels to be 18 dollars per ton.

DUTIES, COLLECTION OF.

1. An act to continue in force the act passed on the twentieth day of April, 1818, entitled "An act supplementary to an act, entitled 'An act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage,' passed the second day of March, 1799," and for other purposes. (Senate, 18th April, 1820.)

The act of 20th April, 1818, continued in force until 4th March, 1823. Twenty days from the date of clearance allowed for completing entry, &c. in cases of drawbacks; but the exporter must comply with every other particular of established regulations.

INDIANS.

1. An act to continue in force for a further time the act, entitled "An act for establishing trading houses with the Indian tribes." (House, 4th March, 1820.)

The act of the 2d of March, 1811, establishing trading houses with Indian tribes, continued until 3d March, 1821.

JUDICIARY.

1. An act to alter the terms of the court of the western district of Virginia. (House, 10th February, 1820.)

The sessions of the court to be hereafter holden at Wythe court house, on the first Mondays of May and October; at Lewisburg on the second Mondays of May and October; and at Clarksburg on the fourth Mondays of May and October.

2. An act altering the place of holding the circuit and district court in the district of Ohio. (House, 4th March, 1820.)

The circuit court to be held at Columbus on the first, and the district court to be held at the same place on the second Mondays of September and January.

3. An act establishing a circuit court within and for the district of Maine. (Senate, 30th March, 1820.)

Rhode Island, Massachusetts, New Hampshire,

and Maine, to be the first circuit. Two courts annually in Maine—at Portland on the 8th of May; and at Wiscasset on the 8th of October. The court may be held by one judge, when the other is unable to attend. The circuit court powers of the district court of Maine are repealed. The circuit court of Maine may decide upon actions originated in the district court and causes depending in the circuit court of Massachusetts may be transferred.

4. An act to establish a district court in the state of Alabama. (Senate, 21st April, 1820.)

The laws of the United States extended to Alabama, which is to be a district, with a district court, of one judge; four stated sessions annually, at Mobile and Cahawba, beginning at the first on the 1st Monday of April, 1821. Causes, &c. in the territorial general court transferred to the district court. Compensation of the judge 1500 dollars per annum. A district attorney, with 200 dollars per annum, besides fees; and a marshal, with 250 dollars per annum, besides fees.

5. An act to alter the times of the session of the circuit and district courts in the district of Columbia. (House, 11th May, 1820.)

Circuit court to be held, for Washington county, on the first Monday in October, and second Monday in April; and for Alexandria, on the 1st Mondays in November and May. The district court to be held on the first Mondays of December and June.

6. An act for altering the times for holding the court of the United States for the western district of Pennsylvania. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

To be held on the first Monday in May, and second Monday in October. Appeals and writs of error to lie from the district court, when acting as a circuit court, to the supreme court. 200 dollars to the attorney and marshal of the western district of Pennsylvania, and the same to those of the northern district of New York; to commence 20th April, 1819.

7. An act to continue in force an act, entitled "An act to provide for reports of the decisions of the supreme court," approved the third of March, one thousand eight hundred and seventeen. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

8. An act to provide for building an addition to the custom house now erecting in the city of New Orleans, for the use of the district court of the United States for the state of Louisiana. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

To contain rooms suitable for the use of the court. As soon as the building is completed, the present court house and lot to be sold.

(*To be continued.*)

MARRIED.

On Saturday evening last, by the Right Rev. Bishop White, Henry J. Williams, esq. to Julia, daughter of the late Dr. Benjamin Rush.

DIED.

On the 17th inst. in this city, William C. Poultney, merchant, late of Mobile.

The editor of the Liverpool Advertiser, on the 15th May, in remarking on the parliamentary proceedings, observes:

"The distress of the country, and the languor and debility under which commerce and manufactures droop, have directed the minds of commercial men deeply interested and profoundly acquainted with the interest of trade, to the system by which our commercial connexions with foreign countries are regulated. It has been suggested, that the evils of which we complain might, by a change in our system, be alleviated, if not removed; and petitions have been presented to parliament by the merchants of the metropolis, and other commercial towns in the country, praying for the removal of the numerous restrictions and prohibitions with which the trade between Great Britain and foreign countries is impeded and interrupted. Mr. Baring, the merchant, has become the advocate of this free system of trade in parliament; and on Monday last that gentleman brought the subject under the consideration of the House of Commons in a very luminous and conclusive strain of argument. In the view taken by that honourable gentleman on this subject, the House seemed generally to concur. Even Mr. Robinson, the president of the board of trade, expressed his conviction that prohibitory restrictions on commerce were founded in error, and calculated to defeat the object for which they were intended.

"It was, however, felt and acknowledged by Mr. Ricardo and others, that the existing system was so completely engrafted upon the commercial policy of the country, that it would be inexpedient to abandon at once the prohibitory laws by which our foreign trade is regulated, and that we must make the advance towards the right path with caution and circumspection. The petition was received, and the impression made on the House on this occasion was certainly very powerful."

The late disgraceful conduct in Canada, towards a wax figure representing general Jackson, has called forth a very general burst of indignation: and, in the spirit of recrimination, many editors have spoken of the "scampering of Packenham's troops from before New Orleans:" we conceive it would have been better to have treated the conduct of the *provincials* with the contempt it merited. It has ever been a maxim with us to "render unto Cæsar that which is Cæsar's." We feel no partiality for the English, but where an enemy behaved as gallantly as did the British before New Orleans, we do not like to hear them unjustly traduced. There is scarce an American or French creole on the spot, who was present at the fight so glorious to our arms and destructive to the enemy, that does not attest to their heroic deeds. The editor of this paper was in New Orleans about a year after the battle; and the chivalrous conduct of the enemy was the dinner table chat of all circles.

[*Metropolitan.*

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

DIED,

At Burlington, in New Jersey, on the 23d ultimo, in the 83d year of his age, GEORGE DILLWYN, formerly of this city, an eminent minister of the gospel, among the people called Quakers.

He was a man of unusual abilities and acquirements, which he had early and unreservedly de-

voted to the service of his Creator; and, in the frequent exercise of his ministerial labours, the natural tones of his affecting elocution were often so peculiarly harmonized by the sublimity of the Christian doctrine, or the pathos of scripture story, as forcibly to bring to mind the *joy and gladness* that was to be *found in Zion—thanksgiving and the voice of melody.*

His wife (a sister of the late Henry Hill, esq. of Philadelphia,) survives her husband. They had been married sixty years, a considerable part of which time they had passed together, in visiting the churches of their profession in different parts of Europe. A few days before his departure, after a long and painful illness, occasioned by an accidental fracture from a fall upon the ice the preceding winter, he cheerfully addressed his tried companion with the following salutation: "My dear, I have good news for thee." "Ah!" said she, "what's that?" "Why that there is a place of rest prepared for thee and me."

Such an assurance confirmed to the believer, in a state of pain and weakness, far outbalances, even in the scale of reason, the doubts of the sceptic, inconsiderately given way to in a time of health and spirits, to terminate at last in hopeless uncertainty. How confirming is the last testimony of such a man to the reality of divine truth, and the unfailing consolations of the gospel.

To the Memory of the late George Dillwyn, of Burlington.

Fully ripe, like the ear of the reaper,
He met the pale messenger's word;
O! sweet is the sleep of the sleeper
That rests in the name of the Lord!

He slumbers at length with his fathers,
Secure from the tempests of time;
For the storm that on earth often gathers,
Is unknown in the heavenly clime.

They have placed the cold earth on his ashes;
They have given him up to the tomb:
But the light of his virtues still flashes,
The pathway of Truth to illume.

He is dead—but his memory still liveth—
He is gone—his example is here—
And the lustre and fragrance it giveth,
Shall linger for many a year.

He stood in the might of his weakness,
With the snows of long years on his head;
And, sublime, with a patriarch's meekness,
The Gospel of Jesus he spread.

The path of the faithful he noted—
In the way of the humble he trod—
And his life was with ardour devoted,
To the cause of Religion and God.

Like the stream, that, in cataracts pouring,
Frets and chafes and turmoils in its foam,
And for many a long mile goes roaring,
Till it finds, in some calm lake, its home—

So he, long, in this life's rugged station,
Thro' the world and its vanities prest,
And now, having closed his probation,
He enters the haven of rest!

He has wandered away, like the setting
Of stars in the dead of the night:
But we are not, in the darkness, forgetting
The fountain that rendered it bright.

Let his name be a beacon to light us,
And guard us from slumbering snares;
O! that we may die as the righteous,
And end our journey like theirs!

For there's joy in the grief of the weeper,
Whose loss may above be restored:
And sweet is the sleep of the sleeper,
That rests in the name of the Lord! M. O.

[*Poulson's D. Adv.*

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of a resolution of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, passed June 20, 1820, authorizing a committee, consisting of the President and Curators, to publish such communications to the society as they may think proper—it was resolved by the committee that the following* be published in the National Recorder, printed by Littell & Henry, at Philadelphia.

By order of the Committee.

I. C. Jones.

June 27th, 1820.

ON THE CULTURE OF POTATOES.

Read 20th June, 1820.

Rockland Place, 6th Mo. 19th, 1820.

Curators of the Philada. Agricultural Society,

Gentlemen—Any discovery made, substituting a substance in the place of barn yard or stable manure, that will operate equally well in promoting the growth of a valuable esculent for the table, at a much cheaper rate than said manure, I am of the opinion ought to be generally known, and, therefore, I have been induced to state the result of an experiment I made last year

* The communications alluded to will be regularly published. The committee meet once a month, and it is intended that the matter furnished by them shall always appear before their next meeting thereafter.—*Editors.*

in the culture of potatoes: substituting rye straw, in the dry state, on a part of them in the place of stable manure.

The seed potatoes were first dropped or placed in the furrows, the usual distance apart, say ten to eleven inches; a moderate quantity of straw then spread immediately on them; after which, the potatoes and straw were well covered with the soil, by means of the plough, in a similar manner to those planted with the stable manure, and their treatment the same during the season. The strawed and manured potatoes were both planted on the 19th of the Fifth month (May), and on the 21st of the Tenth month (October) following, I had the produce taken from the ground; and as the season throughout had been remarkably dry (as is well known) I was surprised to find (presuming that a wet season would have suited the dry straw the best) that my strawed potatoes were quite equal in quantity, quality and size, to those where I had been liberal in the application of stable manure. The nature of the soil on which these potatoes grew, is about the medium between a light and heavy loom. Encouraged by my success last year I am again trying the straw on a more extended scale this. I should like others to try it, and on different descriptions of soil.—And am, with sincere respect,

Isaac C. Jones.

Comparative difference in the expense, between stable manure and rye straw, in the culture of one acre of potatoes, provided each were to be purchased at the Philadelphia market price, and delivered on a farm at the distance of four miles.—From a calculation made, which I believe correct, it will require 200 bundles of straw of the usual average weight (say 14lb.) per acre, which you may purchase and have delivered at 8 cents per bundle, 16 dollars. —Twenty-two horse cart loads of stable manure (more frequently twenty-five are put) per acre, first cost of which and delivery at a low rate (say $3 per load,) 60 dollars.—Saving 44 dollars.

ON RAISING CABBAGES.

Read 20th June, 1820.

December 28, 1819.

Dear Sir—I send you an account of three-quarters of an acre of cabbages raised in the summer of 1819, in the mode recommended in Cobbet's book.

On the 15th April and 3d May the seeds were sown in beds. On the 15th May, 700 of the earliest sown Savoys and late cabbages, were transplanted in squares of four inches. The ground was prepared by ploughing in four feet ridges; it was in good heart; but no manure had been applied either in this or the last season. The severity of the drought delayed the transplanting till the 15th July, a month after the plants were fit to remove. The ridges were wet about two inches deep by a rain which then fell, but not being sufficiently moistened for the use of the dibble, the holes were made by a hoe. On the day after transplanting, all the plants were laid flat by the intense heat of the sun and the dryness of the ground: from this state they were gradually recovered by the heavy dews of the nights. On the 26th July it rained plough deep, and 250 vacancies out of 3500, were filled with new plants; the ground was then ploughed, by throwing the earth from the plants, and returning it by rather a deeper furrow. Two similar ploughings were given during the season, at distant intervals. Notwithstanding the transplanting was performed at least one month too late, and the drought continued with unusual severity through the whole season, the cabbages grew vigorously, and the greater part formed fine heads. On the 15th of October, they were first used as food for 19 large hogs and 25 shoats, of three and four months old, which were entirely fed on them (from the failure of the pumpkin crop) for one month, and from that time for another month they supplied abundant food for the shoats. The nourishment from these three-fourths of an acre, besides affording 400 of the best stalks for family winter use, was computed to be equal to several acres of corn or pumpkins; the hogs throve faster on cabbages than on pumpkins, and the labour and expense of cultivation was not greater than an equal space of corn ground would require. The drought, as is observed by William Cobbet, affects the growth of the cabbage less than any plant raised on a farm. There was no superiority observed in the growth of the plants twice transplanted; on the contrary, there was an evident inferiority, possibly owing to the delay in transplanting in expectation of rain, which caused the 700 plants, twice removed, to grow too large before the second transplantation.

Your friend, respectfully,

Wm. Coxe.

Reuben Haines, esq. Philadelphia.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, July 8, 1820. No. 2.

TO READERS AND CORRESPONDENTS.

This year's subscription is now due, and the publishers request that those to whom it may be convenient will call and pay it, and thus avoid a DUN.

The publishers are about to make arrangements to procure from England a constant supply of such periodical works as contain the best contributions to science and literature, and are not generally read in the United States. We hope to be able to make such extracts from them as will be interesting to our readers generally.

The communication from "HUMANITY," is not very explicit, but as far as we understand his meaning we agree with him. The subject upon which his pen is employed, is, however, peculiarly obnoxious to disputation, in which we are inclined to take no part, and we must therefore respectfully decline to publish his essay.

The poetical communication, signed "ELIZABETH," would be published if we had as much respect for the poetry of the writer as for her filial piety.

We perceive among the toasts drank on the 4th of July, at a meeting of "democratic republicans," the following by Mr. George M. Dallas: "*Maine and Missouri; new states upon old principles.*" This was received with three cheers. The only apparent object of the toast, is to express the speaker's satisfaction at the result of the debate last session. It might very properly be construed so as to have an opposite meaning, but this was probably far from his intention. Ought such an opinion to be received with applause in Pennsylvania?

Miscellany.

Translated for the National Recorder.

Institution of the Deaf and Dumb at Paris.

FROM L'HERMITE DE LA CHAUSSEE D'ANTIN.

"Gratum est, quod patriæ cives populoque dedisti."—*Juv.*

Walking Friday last on the boulevards with an old comrade of the regiment to which I formerly belonged (the chevalier Maurice), who usually lives in the country, but who comes to Paris two or three times a year, we amused ourselves in collecting together and examining the recollections of our youthful days; we called to mind our ancient occupations, our ancient pleasures, and we passed in review the places which had been the theatre of, and the persons who had partaken them. I was obliged to confess, that when we arrived in a garrison, it was always he who was chosen to make inquiries and discoveries, and the next day we were sure of being informed of all that was necessary to be known, to wit, the names of the handsomest ladies in the town, the best ordinary, the most fashionable coffee-house, and the promenade the most frequented. "I was then able," said he, laughing, "to make a complete statistical table of France, for the use of young officers; at present I can still charge myself with that of the capital, and I wager that I can teach you (who by profession ought to know Paris better than any one else) a great many things of which you are ignorant.

He then cited to me the names of twenty little theatres, as many gardens and public establishments where fêtes were given, which in truth I had never heard spoken of. Whilst he was speaking, we were roughly jostled in one of the side walks of the boulevards, by a file of five or six men, who walked along very fast one after the other. Maurice apostrophized pretty sharply the one who had run against him, saying, that "a man, when walking, should always look before him." "So I most certainly would," answered he (still pursuing his way), "if I only had eyes!" "They are blind," cried the chevalier, with the astonishment of a man who thinks he has made a discovery. "I see," said I, "that you are much more familiar with objects of amusement, than with institutions of public utility, and I will bet in my turn that you do not even know in what quarter of Paris the Hospital of the Quinze-vingts is situated." He acknowledged his ignorance,

and his wonder increased on learning that these unfortunate beings, left every day their hospital (which is situated at the bottom of the fauxbourg St. Antoine) and traversed Paris, to go to the Palais Royal, where they performed as musicians at the *Café des Avengles,** and afterwards returned home at midnight, without guide or accident The chevalier could scarce believe the phenomenon of such an instinct, and his astonishment was at the highest pitch, when I bade him observe at some steps from us, on the same boulevard where we were walking, two blind men, who played piquet with as much assurance, and almost as fast, as two amateurs of the *bercle* "You only see there, however," said I to Maurice, "a prodigy of address; I wish now to show you one which appears at first glance to exceed the limits of human intelligence," and I spoke to him of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. As he appeared to call in question the facts which he could not comprehend, I offered him the means of convincing himself by his own eyes, and proposed to him to accompany me the next day to the public exhibition of the institution, for which I had tickets. He accepted with eagerness the invitation, and came the next morning, with his sister and niece, who wished to be of the party.

While on our way to the institution, these ladies interrogated me upon its origin and progress, of which I could only give them very incomplete details. The sublime idea of restoring to society beings which nature appeared to have excluded from it; of supplying by education the organs of hearing and of speech, which they were deprived of, had before it was matured in the head, or rather the *heart* of the celebrated abbé de L'Epée, arrested, at different epochs, the attention of a Spanish monk named Ponce, of the English mathematician Wallis, and of Amman, a physician of Harlaem; but the honour of this admirable invention, does not the less belong to him who brought to perfection the feeble attempts of his predecessors, who united them in a system, and who (like Vincent de Paul, that other benefactor of humanity) consecrated his life and fortune to the foundation of one of the most useful establishments which honours France. Let us hope that public gratitude will prevent posterity from forgetting, that the abbé de L'Epée, without office, without a living, without protection, without any other assistance than his own inheritance (which did not amount to more than twelve thousand livres a year), maintained and instructed in his own house forty deaf and dumb scholars, that he suffered for their sakes the most long and painful privations, and that during the rigorous winter of 1788, he deprived himself of wood and clothes of which he had need, in order that his pupils should want nothing; all these labours and sacrifices would infallibly have been lost, if the abbé had not found in his successor an heir of his talents and virtues.

The abbé Sicard, now instructor of the deaf and dumb, has completed the work of the abbé de L'Epée; he has deduced all the consequences of the system of education, of which the former had laid down the principles; and such is the perfection of the method employed by the abbé Sicard, that one is tempted sometimes to believe, that in the place of seeking a compensation for the organs of which nature has deprived his pupils, he has applied himself to the development of an intellectual sense in them which is wanting in other men. I will give as a proof, two of the well known answers of Massien, who when asked for a definition of *Eternity*, immediately answered, *A day without yesterday or to-morrow;* and of Gratitude, *The memory of the heart!*

While thus conversing, we arrived at the ancient seminary of Saint Magloire, where the National Institution of the Deaf and Dumb is situated. A large corpulent portress, towards whom nature has perhaps been too liberal in the gift of speech, which she has refused to the other inhabitants of the house, pointed out to us the hall of exhibition at the bottom of a vast court, around which the most brilliant equipages were ranged. It was already filled; the first seats were occupied by elegant women, and by a number of strangers of distinction; the rest of the assembly was composed of men of letters, of scholars who came to hear a course of moral physiology from this skilful professor, and of some masters and mistresses of boarding schools, who habitually came to his lectures to learn orthography, and correct the faults which perhaps they had taught the day before!

The young deaf and dumb pupils of both sexes arrived and placed themselves in their seats: those who were designed to answer questions ranged themselves in a species of amphitheatre, the extremity of which was provided with a black board, destined for demonstrations.

* Literally, coffee house of the blind. It takes its name from the circumstance of these blind men playing there.

While these young persons occupied the attention of the spectators, the latter were in their turn the object of the animadversions of the former, who communicated their observations to each other, from one extremity of the hall to the other, in a manner less noisy, but quite as rapid as the audience. Their features are so expressive, their gestures so animated, that without being initiated into the mysteries of their language it is easy to divine the object of their conversation; it is sometimes so gay, so epigrammatical, that their overseers are obliged to impose upon them the silence of inaction. Their criticisms, more lively than malicious, were particularly exercised upon the ladies, whose persons, features, and manners, were by turns discussed and judged in their little tribunal. The sister and niece of Maurice did not escape this examination. They were placed in such a manner as only to be seen by one scholar, who undertook to draw their portraits for the benefit of his comrades. The pretty face of the niece, her modest behaviour, and the glow of health and youth which distinguished her, were described in a manner so picturesque, that the amiable model, by whom the action of the painter was not unobserved, blushed at the same time with modesty and pleasure. The mute interlocutors then interrogated the same young man respecting the mother of her whose portrait had been drawn so glowingly. He described her by gestures so comic, he pointed out so pleasantly the curve of her parrot nose, to which her chin seemed momentarily inclined to join, that all eyes were directed upon the good lady, who laughed herself at the grimaces, of which she was far from supposing herself the object.

The first part of the exhibition was consecrated to grammatical questions, which the abbé Sicard developed for the instruction of his hearers, and of which solutions were given by his scholars with a clearness and precision which would have done honour to the most learned grammarians; and if we reflect for a moment on the immense efforts, the patience and the combinations which are necessary to cause so many abstract ideas to enter into the heads of these children without the aid of speech and by means of the eyes alone, it is impossible not to be filled with the most profound admiration. This sentiment is still further augmented, when, passing from grammar to metaphysics, *we hear* (if I may here use the expression) *persons deaf and dumb from their birth, analyze the human thought by a process of which they have created even the very expression;* among many answers remarkable for their admirable sagacity, I chose these which Massien and Leclerc (two of the most learned scholars) had made to me; I asked them the *difference between desire and hope:* the answer of Massien was, "Desire is a tree bearing leaves, Hope a tree bearing flowers, Enjoyment a tree bearing fruit;"* that of Leclerc, "Desire is an inclination of the heart, Hope a confidence of the mind."

I may be deceived, but it appears to me that this last definition would have been admired had it even been found in the writings of Locke or Condillac. It is by similar examples, that the abbé Sicard is able to demonstrate, that not only all the different shades of *language as it is spoken,* can be appreciated by the deaf and dumb, but also that their language, which may be called the *language of ideas,* is richer than ours, for it cannot be denied that a man endowed with a lively imagination and expanded mind, conceives many ideas which he cannot find words to explain or utter.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

SATURDAY SERMON—NO. VII.

"And the care of this world, and the deceitfulness of riches, choke the word, and he becometh unfruitful."—MATT. xiii. 22.

The cares of business, and the bustle of society, have a constant and powerful effect in withdrawing our thoughts from the more dignified ends of life, and filling our minds with prospects of gain or pleasure which enervate and debase us. Perhaps even the hope of reputation may be added as one of the effects of society upon us, against which we should guard, unless the fame we aspire after be of a purer and higher order than will often be suggested to our wishes by the prospect around us.

To counteract in some degree the effect produced upon me by the tenor of an ordinary life, and the conversation of my usual companions, I made in the earlier part of my life a rule, which has now become a habit, to look for a while at some illustrious example in the hope of catching a portion of his spirit, or to read every day a paper in the Rambler, a few pages from the poets or from those philosophers (at the head of whom I place Dugald Stuart) who

* Le desir est un arbre en feuilles, l'esperance un arbre en fleurs, la jouissance un arbre en fruits.

are such delightful examples of the aphorism of Pope,

"True wisdom comes not from the head, but heart."

Another means, which I have less constantly used for the same purpose, is a review at the close of the day of all that I could recollect of its events. The effect of self-examination is so trite a subject, that it ought not to be the theme of common pens; I will therefore add my testimony to its advantages in few words.

When I have prepared for bed on a summer night and extinguished the light, I frequently sit by the window for half an hour. The cool breeze of night, and the tranquil beams of the moon or the sparkling stars, soon lull to rest all the hurry of my spirits. The scenes of the day then pass before me in their true light, and I often find that I have suffered myself to imbibe too much of the spirit of the passing world. I am not, however, one of those who think

"This world is all a fleeting show,
For man's delusion giv'n;"

nor do I view it *merely* as a place of preparation for future existence: I regard it as an essential part of the eternal life of man, and would not, if I could, put in practice the precepts of those who think self-denial the essence of virtue and piety.

I often find myself to have been too selfish: I have maintained my own opinions too warmly, and have perhaps wounded the self-love of an amiable man by contradiction or opposition for no useful purpose. Sometimes I have been negligent or impatient as a father, and am not always without cause to think that as a husband I have been wanting in kindness and attention.

A sense of our faults is the first step to amendment. From the determination to do better next day, I anticipate in my own cheerfulness the reward of well-doing. I offer to the Father of all my most humble and hearty thanks for his goodness and loving kindness in surrounding me with so many blessings, and with a mind purified by such reflections, lay my head on the pillow. YORICK.

From the Baltimore Federal Gazette.

MONT BLANC.

A Visit to Mont Blanc, in a letter from an American traveller, to his friends in the United States.

Geneva, July 22, 1819.

You, who are acquainted with my clambering disposition, which has already carried me to the tops of Vesuvius and Ætna, will not be very much surprised at learning, that I have attempted, with success, to mount to the summit of Mont Blanc; an aerial journey which many have wished to accomplish, but few have undertaken, and in which still fewer have succeeded. I am somewhat afraid that you will condemn the expedition as a wild one, and I am sensible, with considerable justice; but you need be under no apprehensions of my making any similar attempts in future. Having reached the highest point in Europe, if not in the old world, (which some recent discoveries concerning the mountains of India, render at least doubtful,) my curiosity is entirely gratified, and there is no probability of my meeting with any future temptation, sufficient to excite it anew.

During our visit to Chamouny in the beginning of this month, my companion, Dr. Van Renssalaer, and myself in our various excursions to the glaciers, frequently conversed with the guides, who had participated in these journies, and among them with Balmat, the Columbus of Mont Blanc. The result was, that our curiosity was strongly excited, and being induced by their representation of the almost certainty of succeeding in the present favourable weather, we finally determined to make the attempt. We therefore engaged *Marie Cortet*, an experienced guide, who had been three times on the summit, as leader, and eight other guides to accompany us. They refused to undertake the journey with a smaller party, on account of the number of articles which it was necessary to take with us, as, a ladder, cords, provisions, charcoal to melt the snow for drinking, and a number of other things, which were indispensable, and which formed a sufficient quantity to load each of the nine with a considerable burden. One day was occupied in making the preparations, on which our comfort and our ultimate success depended. These were passed in review in the evening, and having found that nothing material was omitted, an early hour the next day was appointed for our departure.

Accordingly on Sunday, the 11th of July, we left the village of Chamouny, at 5 o'clock, full of anxiety, and accompanied by the good wishes of the honest inhabitants for our success. The necessity of taking advantage of the fine weather, opposed our delaying another day. Our guides, who, in common with all the inhabitants of Chamouny, are very scrupulous on this point, were unwilling to set out on a church day, without having previously attended mass. To ease their conscience, and at the same time not to delay our departure, the cure had arranged to celebrate it at three o'clock, which gave them an opportunity, they had not neglected, of attending it.

We descended the valley by the side of the Arva, about a league, till we approached the glacier of Boissons, and then turning suddenly to the left into the woods, we began immediately, a very steep ascent, parallel to, and about half a mile from, the edge of the glacier. After about three hours' toilsome mounting, we came to the last house on our road. It was the highest dwelling in the neighbourhood, and was one of those cottages, called "Chalets," which are inhabited only during three of the summer

months, when the inhabitants drive their cattle from the plains below, to the then richer verdure of the mountains. We found there the old man and his two daughters; his wife, as is the custom, was left behind to take care of the house in the valley. After refreshing ourselves with a delicious draught of fresh milk, and receiving the wishes of these good people, for a "bon voyage," we bade adieu to all traces of man, and continued to mount. Another hour's toil brought us above the region of wood, after which the few stinted vegetables we met with, gradually diminished in size, and when we arrived at 10 o'clock, at the upper end of the glacier of Boissons, only a few mosses, and the most hardy alpine plants, were to be seen.

We had been compelled a little before, by the precipices of the Aiguille du Midi, which presented themselves like a wall before us, to change our direction, and instead of proceeding parallel to the glacier, to strike off suddenly towards it. We had now a close view of some of the obstacles which bar the approach to Mont Blanc; the glacier of Boissons, on which we were about to enter, seemed to me absolutely impassible. The only relief to the white snow and ice before us, was an occasional rock, thrusting its sharp point above their surface, and too steep to permit the snow to lodge on it. One of these rocks, or rather a chain of them, called the "Grand Mulet," which we had destined for our resting place for the night, was before us, but far above our heads, at the distance of 4 or 5 miles; the glacier, however, still intervened, and appeared to defy all attempts to approach it.

The glacier of Boissons, like the rest of the glaciers of the Alps, is an immense mass of ice filling a valley which stretches down the mountain side, and is formed by the accumulated snow and ice, which are constantly in the summer months sliding from above. While the glaciers are thus constantly increasing on the surface, the internal heat of the earth is slowly melting them below. Hence, when they are large, there generally proceeds from under them a considerable stream: such are the sources of the Rhine and of the Rhone. Their surface often resembles that of a violent agitated sea, suddenly congealed. They are frequently of several leagues in breadth, and from 100 to 600 feet in depth. The snow which falls on them to the depth of several feet every winter, is softened by the sun's rays in summer, and freezing again at the return of cold weather, but in a more solid state, forms a successive layer every year. This stratum may be easily measured, (as each of them is distinctly separated from its neighbour by a dark line,) at the section made by those cracks, which traverse every glacier in all directions. These cracks or crevices, are occasioned by the irregular sinking of part of the glacier whose support below has been gradually melted away. This effect takes place principally in summer, with a noise that may be heard at the distance of several miles, and with a shock that makes the neighbouring country tremble. These rents are from a few inches to 20, 30, or even 50 or 60 feet in breadth, and generally of immense depth, probably extending to the bottom of the glacier. They offer the greatest danger and difficulty to the passenger. They are often concealed by the snow, which gives no indication on its surface, of the want of solidity; and it often happens that the chamois hunter, notwithstanding all his caution, suddenly sinks through this perfidious veil into the chasm beneath.

We remained a couple of hours at our resting place, to take some refreshment, and regain strength for our next difficult task. Our feet seemed to linger, and to leave with reluctance the last ground we were to touch until our return. We however entered on the glacier with confidence in the skill and prudence of our guides; several of whom being hunters, and accustomed to chase the chamois over such places, were acquainted with all the precautions that it was necessary to take for our safety. To avoid the danger of falling into the crevices, especially those masked by the snow, we fastened ourselves, three persons together, at the distance of 10 or 12 feet apart, by a cord round the body: so that in case of one falling into one of these cavities, the other two could support him. Each person was provided with a pole, 6 feet long, and pointed at the bottom with iron, which we found to be a necessary article. Where the crevices were not more than two or three feet broad, we leaped over them with the assistance of our staff; others we passed on natural bridges of snow, that threatened to sink into the abyss, and over others we made a bridge of the ladder, which was extremely slight, as otherwise it would have been impossible to carry it up the steeps we had ascended. Without its assistance we could not have passed the glacier. Over this slender support we crawled with caution, suspended over a chasm, into which we could see to an immense depth; but of which we could see no bottom. We were sometimes forced to pass on a narrow ridge of treacherous ice, not more than a foot in breadth, with one of these terrific chasms on either side. The firm step, with which we saw our guides pass these difficulties, inspired us with confidence: but I cannot even now think of some of the situations we were placed in, without a sentiment of dread; and especially when in bed, and in the silence of night, they present themselves to my imagination, I involuntarily shrink with horror at the idea, and am astonished in recollecting what little sensation I felt at the moment.

We threw down, into some of the narrow cracks, pieces of ice and fragments of rock, and heard for a considerable time, the more and more distant sound, as they bounded from side to side. In no instance could we perceive the stone strike the bottom; but the sound, instead of ceasing suddenly, as would then have been the case, grew fainter and fainter, until it was too feeble to be heard. What then must be the immense depth of these openings, when in these silent regions, the noise of a large stone striking the bottom is too distant to be heard at the orifice.

The number of openings we met with, which were broader than the length of our ladder, and which, of course, we had no means of crossing, rendered our path extremely circuitous. We were often enabled, by the ladder's assistance, to scale high and perpendicular banks of snow. It sometimes proved too short to reach

to the top; but where the steep was not absolutely perpendicular, we continued in several instances to remedy this inconvenience. One of the guides, standing on the top of the ladder, enabled the rest, who clambered up by his assistance, to reach the summit: when there, we easily drew up him and the ladder with cords.

We were occasionally compelled to retrace our steps, and we were frequently so involved in an intricate path, that we had to remain without proceeding, a considerable time, until the guides, who were dispersed in every direction on the discovery, could find a practicable path to extricate us.

In addition to these difficulties, I had not been long on the glacier before I perceived that my faithless boot had given way; which, as every thing depended upon the good health of our feet, was a serious misfortune. Necessity, however, is the mother of invention, and I contrived to bind it with cords in such a manner that it served me tolerably well the rest of the journey.

In consequence of all these obstacles, we only arrived at 5 o'clock at the "Grand Mulet," not more than 4 or 5 miles distant, in a straight line from the point where we entered on the glacier; but, from the circuitous route we had taken, we could not have walked less, in this distance, than 14 or 15 miles. We were now 11,000 feet above the level of the sea, and 8,000 feet above the village of Chamouny. A niche on the steep side, and near the top of the rock, about 150 feet from its base, and to which we had much difficulty in climbing, was selected for our lodging place; indeed it was the only part of the rock that afforded any thing like a level place. We were fortunate in finding the day had been so warm that there was water in some of the crevices of ice, which circumstance enabled us to economize our charcoal. The sun shone very bright on our side of the rock, but as soon as it sunk below the horizon, the eternal frost around us regained its influence, and the air became very cold. We had, however, time to dry our boots and pantaloons, and I found a pair of large woollen stockings that I had with me, an invaluable article. Our guides stretched the ladder from one point of the rock to another, and throwing over it a couple of sheets, they had brought for the purpose, formed a kind of tent, just large enough for Dr. Van Renssalaer and myself to creep in: a single blanket upon the rock was our bed. The guides were so loaded with indispensable articles, that we had not been able to bring a blanket, or even an extra coat to cover us.

After a cold and uncomfortable supper, we crept into our den, soon after the genial sun had left us, and endeavoured, by every means our ingenuity could suggest, but ineffectually, to keep ourselves warm. We suffered much from the cold all night, but, principally, towards morning, as the thermometer was several degrees below freezing. The night seemed to last at least twenty hours; at one time I thought the day must certainly be not distant, and was surprised at looking at my watch, by the light of the moon, to find it only 11 o'clock. Tired of lying, and shivering with the cold, I crawled out about midnight to warm myself by clambering on the rock. The view around me was sublime. The sky was very clear, but perfectly black: the moon and stars, whose rays were not obscured by passing through the lower dense region of the atmosphere, shone with a brilliancy tenfold of what I had ever observed from below; and the comet, with its bright tail, formed, in the northwest, a beautiful object. Nothing was to be seen around the rock on which we were placed, but white snow and some heavy clouds, that, floating below us, shut out the valley from my view. The guides were all asleep, and the only interruption to the silence of death, was the occasional avalanche, rolling with the sound of distant thunder from the highest part of the surrounding glaciers, and heightening the feelings of awful sublimity, which our situation was so calculated to inspire.

As our lodging was far from comfortable in every point of view, we were under no temptation of lying till a late hour in the morning. On the contrary, we hailed with joy the first appearance of the dawn, which enabled us to substitute the warmth of marching, for the cold inactivity from which we had suffered all night. We set out at 3 o'clock, leaving most of our provisions and other articles on the rock. Four hours of laborious, but not dangerous walking, brought us to a large plain, called the "Grand Plateau," which is nearly surrounded, on the one hand, by a spur of Mont Blanc, and the Aiguille du Midi, on the other, by the Montagne de la Cote, while Mont Blanc presents itself directly in front. These mountains form a steep amphitheatre around this plain. There we stopped an hour to breakfast, and to recruit strength for the last and most difficult part of the ascent. We were now more than 12,000 feet above the level of the sea, and only 3,000 feet lower than the summit, which was in full view before us. But I looked around, in vain, for any part of its steep sides that seemed to offer a possibility of attaining it, and when the guides pointed out the route we were to take, among and over precipices, and huge broken masses of snow, and up almost perpendicular steeps, I involuntarily shrunk at the prospect, and could not forbear casting my eye wistfully at our road back. But it would not have done to be deterred at this time by a few difficulties; and a moment's reflection, on the skill and experience of our guides renewed my confidence, and we began cheerfully to mount the first steep before us. We here began to feel an effect, that is always experienced at considerable heights. It was impossible for the strongest of us to take more than twenty-five or thirty steps, without stopping to take breath, and this effect gradually increased as we continued to ascend; insomuch, that when near the summit, even the stoutest of our guides, who could run for leagues over the lower mountains without panting, could not take more than twelve, or at most fifteen steps, without being ready to sink for want of breath. If we attempted to exceed this number by even three or four steps, a horrible oppression seized us, and our limbs sunk under us. It is very possible, that Walter Scott's hero,

> "Up Ben Lomond's side could press,
> And not a sob his toil confess;"

But I am very certain he could not perform the same feat on Mont Blanc. It is remarkable that a few seconds rest was sufficient to restore our strength and breath. One of our guides, a robust man, who had been once on the summit, was so much incommoded, that we were compelled to leave him behind to wait our return. I experienced some inconvenience from a slight degree of sickness of stomach and headach, of which most of those who have made this journey have complained. When ascending Ætna, two months before, I had been seriously affected, both by a difficulty of breathing, and by a violent thumping of the heart and arteries against the ribs, which was loud enough to be easily heard by my companions, and which the slightest exertion was sufficient to excite. In the present instance I dreaded these effects, and had already began to feel them in an uncomfortable degree; but was almost entirely relieved by drinking plentifully of vinegar and water, with which our guides, to whom experience had taught its utility, had taken care to be well provided. This drink was extremely agreeable to us; wine, on the contrary, disgusted us. All the water we had we had brought from *our* rock, where we carefully collected it from the cracks of the ice: for we were now in the region of eternal ice, where rain never falls, and where the utmost power of midsummer can only soften, in a slight degree, the surface of the snow.

The acclivity we were now ascending, was steeper than any we had before encountered, so much so, that we could only accomplish it by a zigzag path, advancing not more than a few feet every 20 or 30 yards we walked. To have an idea of our situation, you must imagine us proceeding in a file on the steep mountain side, placing with the greatest care our feet in the steps, which the hardness of the snow rendered it necessary for our leader to cut with an axe, supporting ourselves with our poles against the upper side of the slope, and having on the other side the same rapid slope, terminating below in a precipice several hundred feet in height, over which we saw rapidly hurried all the small pieces of ice, that we loosened with our feet. Our situation was similar to that of a person scaling the steep and iced roof of a lofty house, and constantly liable, by an incautious step, to be suddenly precipitated over the eaves. After proceeding in this manner for some time, I looked down on the "Plateau" beneath, for the guide we had left, and when at last I discerned him, like a speck on the snow, my head began to grow dizzy at the idea of the distance below me, and I was forced to keep my head averted from this side.

Our guides had attached themselves and us with cords, each three persons together, as when passing the glacier. They were provided with large iron points fastened to their feet, which prevented them from slipping. Doctor Van Renssalaer and myself had found this contrivance impede too much our walking, and after a short trial had given it up. I am not entirely convinced, that if one of us had had the misfortune to fall, and were slipping down the declivity, he would not have drawn his companions, in spite of these precautions, down the precipice. To add to all our difficulties, the sun was excessively bright, and almost blinded us, notwithstanding the gauze veils with which we were all provided.

Fortunately we met with very few crevices: however, on passing one of these that was hid by the snow, I suddenly sunk, but my body being thrown forward by this motion, my breast opposed a larger surface to the snow, which thus supported me, and I was easily extricated by a guide. On looking back through the hole I had broken, I could perceive the black cavity beneath.

At one period, our path necessarily led us close under a wall of snow, more than 150 feet high, from the top of which projected several large masses of snow, that appeared to require only a breath to bring them down on our heads. Our captain pointed out our danger, and enjoined us to pass as quickly as possible, and to observe the strictest silence. The inhabitants of those parts of the Alps exposed to avalanches, assert that the concussion of the air, produced by the voice, is often sufficient to loosen, and bring down these immense masses. Hence the muleteer is often seen to take the bells from his animals, when he passes through a valley subject to this danger. We were by no means so philosophical as to be disposed to make the experiment in the present instance; but, on the contrary, carefully obeyed our instructions. A few years since, some young men, relying on the solidity of the ice, and wishing to try the echo, were so imprudent as to discharge a pistol in a large cave which is at the lower edge of the glacier des Pois, near Chamouny. The shock brought down the roof, which crushed them on the spot.

At 11 o'clock we had passed most of the difficulties, and all the dangers of our ascent, and reached a granite rock which appears above the snow at the foot of the small mount or nipple which forms the summit of Mont Blanc. This rock is only 1,000 feet lower than the summit. Here we enjoyed a full view of the valley and village of Chamouny, which had hitherto been masked by the "Aiguille du Midi;" and when we recollected the promises of our friends there to watch our progress with their glasses, and were convinced that they were at that moment observing, we felt relieved from the sensation which we had previously experienced, of being shut out from the world. In fact, we learned afterwards that they had seen us distinctly, counted our number, and observed that one of the party was missing: this was the guide we had left at the "Plateau."

Our final object was now close at hand. We turned, with renewed ardour, to accomplish it; continuing our zigzag path, till, after infinite suffering and gasping for breath, we stood, at half an hour after noon, on the highest point of Europe!

Our first impulse, on arriving, was to enjoy the pleasure of throwing our eyes around, without encountering any obstacle. The world was at our feet. The sensations I felt were rather those of awe than sublimity. It seemed that I no longer trod on this globe, but that I was removed to some higher planet, from which I could look down on a scene which I had lately inhabited, and where I had left behind me the passions, the sufferings, and the vices of men. The

houses of Chamouny appeared like dwellings of ants, and the river which flows through the valley, seemed not sufficient to drown one of these pigmy animals. These emotions made me, for some time, insensible to the cold, but the piercing wind, which here had free scope, soon put an end to my waking dream, and enabled me to examine, more calmly, the objects around.

Notwithstanding the pleasure inspired by the view, it was certainly more terrific than beautiful. The distant objects appeared as if covered by a veil. To the northwest was the chain of Jura, with a mist hanging on its whole extent, which prevented the eye from penetrating into France, in that direction. On the north was the lake of Geneva; of a black colour, and surrounded by mountains, which we had thought high, when we were on its banks, but which now appeared insignificant, and the lake itself seemed scarcely capacious enough for a bathing place. To the east were the only mountains that appeared of a considerable size; among which the most conspicuous were the Jungfrau and Schreckhorn in Grendelwalden, and Monte Rosa on the borders of Piedmont, which rises its hoary and magnificent head to within a few hundred feet of the level of Mont Blanc. The Grand St. Bernard was at our feet, to the southeast, scarcely appearing to rise more than a mole's hill height above the adjoining vallies. The obstacles which Bonaparte had to encounter in leading his army over this mountain, even in winter, appeared so diminished in our eyes, that this vaunted undertaking lost, at the moment, in our estimation, much of its heroism and grandeur.

The view below, and immediately around, presented a shapeless collection of craggy points, among which the "Needles" were easily distinguished. We could hardly trust our senses, when we saw, beneath our feet, those rocks which, from below, appear higher than Mont Blanc itself, and which seem to penetrate into the region of the stars, and to threaten to "disturb the moon in passing by." Our view may be compared with that from the top of an elevated steeple over an extensive city, of the most lofty habitations, of which the roofs only are seen. The only green that we could perceive, was the narrow valley of Chamouny, and the two vallies by the side of St. Bernard. The portion of the earth that was not covered with snow, appeared of a gloomy and dark gray colour. The world presented an image of chaos, and offered but little to tempt our return to it.

The top of Mont Blanc is a ridge of perhaps 150 feet in length, and 6 or 8 in breadth. It is entirely composed of snow, which is probably of immense depth, and is constantly accumulating. We could see no traces of the obelisk, 12 feet in height, which had been set up about ten years before. One of our guides was of the number of those who placed it, and designated to us its position. The highest rock, which appears above the snow, is a small one of granite, 600 feet below the summit. We remained but a few minutes immediately on the top, as the wind blew hard and piercingly cold. Descending a few feet on the south side we were partially sheltered from the wind, and here the sun shone with an excessive brightness, heating every part of the body exposed to his rays; but the least breath of wind, which reached us at intervals, was sufficient to make us shiver with cold. Fahrenheit's thermometer, in the sun, was two degrees below freezing, and five and a half in the shade. It must be recollected that we suffered a much greater degree of cold, than the thermometer indicated, from the rapid evaporation from the surface of our bodies of the insensible transpiration, occasioned by the dryness and great rarity of the surrounding air. This cause, familiar to physiologists, affected our sensations, and could not influence the thermometer. Most of our guides stretched themselves on the snow in the sun, and yielded to the strong inclination to sleep, which we all felt. Only one or two of them ate: the others, on the contrary, evinced an aversion from the provision. We did not suffer the great thirst which Saussure and his party experienced. This we prevented by drinking vinegar and water, which was very grateful to us, instead of pure water. Our pulses were increased in frequency and fulness, and we had all the symptoms of fever. I occupied myself, notwithstanding the indisposition to action which I felt, in making a few observations, and in stopping and sealing very carefully a bottle which I had filled with the air of the summit, intended for examination on my return.

The colour of the sky had gradually assumed a deeper tint of blue, as we ascended: its present colour was dark indigo, approaching nearly to black. There was something awful in this appearance, so different from any we had ever witnessed. It was as if the sun were shining at midnight. During some of the first attempts that were made to ascend Mont Blanc, this appearance produced such an effect on the minds of the guides, who imagined that heaven was frowning on their undertaking, that they refused to proceed. The portion of atmosphere above us was entirely free from the vapours which the lower strata always contain, and was truly the "pure empyreal," seldom seen by mortal eyes. We had all our life beheld the sun through a mist, but we now saw him face to face, in all his splendour. The guides asserted that the stars can be seen, in full day, by a person placed in the shade. It being near noon, the sun almost over our heads, we could not find shade to enable us to make the experiment.

The air on the top of Mont Blanc is of but little more than half the density of that at the surface of the ocean. According to the observation of Saussure, the height of the barometer on the summit, was sixteen and a half inches, while that of a corresponding one at Geneva, was twenty-eight inches. In consequence of this rarity of the air a pistol, heavily charged, which we fired several times, made scarcely more noise than the crack of a postillion's whip.

We remained an hour and a quarter on the summit, and then began to descend. We found this, at first, an easy task, though perhaps more dangerous than the ascent, on account of the greater risk of slipping. We passed under the place where the avalanche threatened our heads, with even more caution and more rapidity than before, as we found that a small piece had actually fallen, and covered our path since we had gone up. We arrived in about an hour at the "Grand Plateau," where we stopped to refresh

ourselves, and gratify our returning appetites. We found the guide whom we had left, quite relieved. Here the sun, reflected from the walls of snow which surrounded us on three sides, poured down on us with the most burning heat that I ever experienced from its rays, while our feet, cold from being immersed in the snow, prevented perspiration, and thus increased its power. Wherever its rays could penetrate, as between the cap and neckcloth, or even to the hands, it resembled the application of a heated iron. We were compelled in addition to the assistance of our veils, to keep our eyes half closed, and even then the light was too powerful for them.

We continued with ease and cheerfulness our descent, until an unexpected difficulty occurred. Where in the morning we had cut our footsteps with an axe, we now found the snow so much softened by the sun, that we sunk in it every third or fourth step, to the middle of the body. Dr. Van Renssalaer and myself were more subject to this inconvenience than the guides, on account of the soles of our boots presenting a less surface to the snow, than those of their large shoes. After plunging on in this manner for some time, we began to despair of reaching our rock, which was yet four or five miles distant: but there was no alternative but to proceed. We therefore kept on, though with excessive fatigue. We frequently fell forward, and one limb being tightly engaged in the snow, was violently twisted, and constantly subject to be sprained; which in our situation would have been a serious misfortune. The crevices too, were, from their edges having become softened, more dangerous than before. Perseverance and caution, however, triumphed over all these difficulties, and we reached the "Grand Mulet" half an hour after five, our boots, stockings and pantaloons completely soaked. These were immediately stretched on the rock to dry, which the heat of the sun soon effected. I had the disappointment to find, on examining my pockets, that the bottle which I had so carefully filled with the air of the summit, had been broken in one of my frequent falls, and of course my hopes of making with it some interesting experiments were now destroyed. The thermometer was also broken.

Notwithstanding the Herculean labour of the day, and the fatigue we experienced at the time, we had not been long on our rock before we felt strong and invigorated, as if just risen from a comfortable night's repose. This effect of the mountain air has often been remarked. We had even sufficient strength and time to enable us to continue our descent with ease to Chamouny; but in the present softened state of the snow, it would have been madness to attempt to cross the glacier, which we found difficult and dangerous the preceding day, before the sun's rays had affected it. In fact, while two of the guides were looking down our path over the glacier, they saw a bridge of snow which we all crossed the day before, suddenly sink into the chasm beneath.

Imprisoned thus by the glacier, which was now all that intervened betwixt us and terra firma, we quietly resolved to remain where we were, and made the same arrangements for passing the night, that we had done the evening before. We were, however, at present better off: I mentioned that we had been so fortunate as to find a sufficient supply of water in the neighbourhood of our rock, in consequence of which, most of the charcoal we had brought to melt the snow, remained. With this I made a small fire at our feet, and by blowing almost constantly, kept it up during the night. The cold was notwithstanding so great, that whenever I fell asleep, I was awakened in a few minutes to shiver and chatter my teeth. Our guides slept in the open air, huddled as close together as possible.

July 13th.—The dawning of the day was truly welcome, as it promised a near termination to our toil and suffering; while the gratification of having accomplished a difficult and interesting object remained. We left our hard bed without reluctance, and were impatient at the slowness with which the guides made their preparations for packing up their numerous articles. We began to descend as the sun illumined the white top of Mont Blanc, but long before his beams penetrated below. Above our heads the sky was perfectly clear, while the vallies beneath, and all except a few of the highest surrounding mountains, were concealed by a sea of clouds. The appearance of the clouds when seen from above is singular. They resemble immense floating masses of light cotton. We retraced our path of the first day, and took the same precaution as then, of attaching ourselves together. When the sun's rays began to shine on the snow around us, I found that my eyes were so much inflamed, I could scarcely bear them sufficiently open to see the path; notwithstanding the gauze veil I had constantly used, my face was in a terrible condition: the outer skin had fallen, and permitted the moisture of the blood to ooze through; Dr. Van Renssalaer's eyes were in a worse condition than mine, and his face nearly as bad.

At one part of the glacier, where the snow had been so hard at our passing, that our feet left no impression, we lost our path, which was a misfortune, as we had chosen a much better path in ascending, than we could have done in descending. We however fell in with the track of two chamois, which our guides followed with confidence, relying on the instinct which they attribute to these animals, of finding a practicable path over the most difficult glaciers.

When we had at last passed the glacier, our feet seemed to rejoice at once more touching firm ground; and we felt as if returning to the world from a distant voyage. The rest of our task offered no difficulty, being a constant descent down the rocky mountain side, except what was occasioned by our almost total blindness, and the pain we suffered in our eyes. It was, however, very fatiguing, as the descent from a mountain is generally more so than the ascent to it. We stopped at the same chalet where two days before we had bid adieu to the world—and were regaled by the old man and his daughters with a delicious draught of milk and cream. We reached the village soon after ten o'clock in the morning, having been absent fifty-three hours, during forty-five of which we were on the ice. We were received with many congratulations by the honest villagers, who had taken considerable interest in our success.

As soon as my companion and myself reached our inn, we buried ourselves in our chamber, to enjoy the luxury of a bed, and of darkness which was necessary for our eyes. It was not until the sun had set, and the twilight was not too strong for them, that we ventured out to regale ourselves with a comfortable meal. Two English visiters, who watched with a glass our progress on the top of Mont Blanc, had expressed a determination to follow our example; but our account of the difficulties we met with, and still more the view of the condition we were in, soon induced them to abandon the design. We walked out under the "Needles," and as we saw the clouds hang half way up these rocks, which pierce the sky, and on whose clear heads the stars seemed to repose, we could scarcely realize the idea that they were the same we had seen only thirty hours before, far below our feet.

The next day after our return to Chamouny our eyes had become so much stronger, that we were enabled without much inconvenience to proceed to Geneva, where we have since remained to recover from our sufferings. Though now more than a week has elapsed, my face is yet much inflamed; but my eyes have regained their usual strength. Dr. Van Renssalaer has suffered in the same manner, but on the whole rather less than myself. Wherever the sun's rays could penetrate, even behind the ears to the level of the neckcloth, the skin has fallen off, and I have exchanged the tawny hue of an Italian and Sicilian sun, for the fair complexion of a German or Englishman. We have purchased perhaps too dearly the indulgence of our curiosity; but at present, when the difficulties are passed and the gratification remains, I cannot regret it, especially if I succeed in making you partake of the one without suffering from the other.

Principal Events in the Life of the celebrated Volney.

FROM A PARIS PAPER OF APRIL 28.

Count Constantine F. B. de Volney, peer of France, commandant of the Legion of Honour, and member of the French Academy, born at Crayon (Mayenne) in 1755, died last night of an inflammation of the bowels. He was one of our most learned men and distinguished writers. From his early youth he had a taste for travelling, and this became so ardent that in the year 1773 he embarked for Egypt and Syria, whence he did not return till 1785, having lived almost a year in a convent of Maronite monks on Mount Lebanon, where he acquired a profound knowledge of the Arabic language. In 1787, he published his Travels in Egypt and Syria, which has been translated into the principal languages of Europe. This work served as the surest guide and most exact indicator to the famous expedition to Egypt under the Directory.

He was no stranger to the first efforts of the Bretons towards the obtainment of liberty in 1788. To him is attributed a periodical publication of that period, entitled the Sentinel, printed at Rumes, whose influence on public opinion contributed to the first shocks of our antiquated monarchy.

In 1789, M. de Volney was nominated a deputy of third order (Tiers-Etat) from the Seneschalate of Anjou to the States General. He took an active part against despotism and aristocracy, and soon perceived that resistance to the revolution would only precipitate it beyond its object. Startled by the violence of the parties into which the constituent assembly was divided, he proposed the convocation of the principal assemblies, in hopes of obtaining a new legislature composed of men less under the influence of hostile passions than that which then existed; but his motion was rejected as being contrary to the oath which the Tiers-Etat had taken in the Tennis Court Hall.

In September, 1791, M. de Volney presented the National Assembly with his celebrated work, entitled, "The Ruins, or Meditations on the Revolutions of Empires." A new edition of this work has appeared, almost on the day of the author's death.

The same year he received a gold medal from the empress Catherine the Second, in return for a copy of his Travels in Syria and Egypt.

In 1792, he accompanied M. Pozzo di Borgo to Corsica, where he became acquainted with the ambitious youth (Bonaparte) who some years after played so great a part on the theatre of the world.

In 1793, he published the Law of Nature, or Catechism of a French Citizen: he also declared himself inimical to the events of the 31st May. He was imprisoned till after the 9th Thermidor, when he was restored to liberty.

In November, 1794, he was named professor of the Normal School, and published his Normal Lessons in 1799, which were reprinted in 1810.

In 1795, he made a voyage to the United States, where he was very well received by the immortal Washington. He appeared for some time determined on fixing his residence in the new world; but he decided on returning to France in 1798.

He printed, in 1803, the Table of the Climate and Soil of the United States of America, which is terminated by a vocabulary of the Miamis (Indian) language.

He took an active part in the revolution of the 18th Brumaire, and had nearly been chosen one of the consuls: he was successively nominated senator, vice president of the senate, count of the empire, and commandant of the legion of honour.

He adhered to the act of abdication of Napoleon on the 1st April, 1814, and on the 4th June following, he was created a member of the chamber of peers.

Besides the works already mentioned, M. Volney has published—1st. A Simplification of the Oriental Languages, or a new and easy Method of understanding the Arabic, Persian and Turkish Languages, with European Characters—1795, in octavo. The author's system, though more simple than that of Langles, has not been adopted. He proposes to replace the Arabic alphabet by a new alphabet, composed of Latin letters, 4 Greek letters, and 12 new characters, by means of which the advantage could be obtained of describing each simple articulation by a single (unique) character.

2d. Report made to the Celtic Academy on the Russian work of Professor Pallas: Comparative Vocabulary of the Languages of all Nations, in 1805, quarto. This report, which is also inserted in the first volume of the Memoirs of the Celtic Academy, has for its object to prove that the *Vocabularie totius Arbic*, composed by the empress Catherine, could not serve as an universal vocabulary, the Russian alphabet being too incomplete for this purpose, and an universal alphabet being yet a desideratum. M. de Volney was much occupied in this research, and it is beyond doubt, that among his manuscripts will be discovered ample fruits of those important studies that attracted so much of his attention, and occupied so large a portion of the lives of Leibnitz, and several other learned men.

3d. Supplement to the Herodotus of Larcher, or Chronology of Herodotus, conformable to the text.

4th. Statistical Questions for the Use of Travellers.

5th. New Researches in Ancient History, in 3 vols. 8vo. With this important work M. de Volney terminated his literary career.

During several years, the health of M. de Volney had become considerably impaired, and it was often feared that his devotion to letters would deprive his country of the services of a man whose genius did her honour. His frame has been spread to the remotest parts of Europe, and the Asiatic Society of Calcutta lately enrolled his name amongst those of her members.

He left, by his last will, an annual prize of 1200 francs to the author of the best memoir on the study of the oriental languages, and particularly on the simplification of their characters. The memoirs are to be examined and judged by a committee, composed of three members of the Academy of Belles Lettres, three of the French Academy, and one of the Academy of Sciences.

POOR LAWS.

After some remarks on the measures lately adopted by the British parliament, to suppress by force the revolutionary spirit in England, the "*Christian Observer*" proceeds to remark: "We must, however, repeat, that in thus guarding against the more imminent perils which menaced the country, the legislature appear to us to have discharged only a part, though doubtless a very important part, of their high obligations. They have secured, as we trust, the public peace, and have so curbed the spirit of disloyalty, as to allow us some respite from the revolutionary convulsion which seemed ready to overwhelm us. Now then is the time for adopting measures of a more permanent and paternal description, calculated not merely to restrain the practice of evil, but, as far as may be, to cure it. Now is the time for reviewing our commercial system; for reforming our poor laws, that fruitful source of some of the most baneful evils which afflict society; for extending and perfecting plans of education; for affording additional facilities of public religious instruction; for improving our code of criminal laws and our system of prison discipline."

In a subsequent part of the same article they observe: "Our whole system has been a system of interference, with trade, with corn, and, above all, with the domestic economy of the poor themselves. We have interfered, until we have rendered them as helpless and unthinking as children. We have taught them by our institutions to depend, not on their own exertions, or frugality, or forethought, but on the parish."

Flight of Horses.—About the 10th of June, 1810, at 2 o'clock in the morning, while colonel R. M. Johnson's regiment was encamped on the peninsula below fort Wayne, in a beautiful grass plain, some of the horses that passed the line of sentinels and got some distance up the St. Joseph, became alarmed, and came running into

camp in great fright. This alarmed all the horses in the regiment, which united in a solid column within the lines, and took three courses round the camp. It would seem almost incredible, but it is a fact, they appeared not to cover more than about 40 by 60 yards of ground, and yet their number was about 600. The moon shone at the full, the camp was an open plain, and the scene awfully sublime. They at length forced their passage through the lines, overset several tents, carried away several pannels of fence, passed off through the woods, and were in a few minutes out of hearing of the loudest bells that belonged to the regiment. The next day was spent in collecting them, some of which were found ten or twelve miles from the camp, up the St. Joseph, and about 20 or 25 were never found, although pursued above 20 miles. The alarming flight of the horses of that regiment injured them more than could have been supposed; for they had run so long in such a compact body, that very few had escaped without being lamed, having their hind feet cut by the shoes of those that crowded on them.

The writer of this was an officer of the guard and then on duty. The night being clear and calm, the moon rolling in full splendour, the flight of the horses, which resembled distant thunder, the idea of an immediate attack from the Indians, and the ground of our encampment being paved with the bones of former warriors, all combined to furnish one of those awfully sublime *night scenes* that beggar all description.

A similar flight of the horses took place about the 22d of June, after the regiment arrived at Fort Meigs. [*Western paper.*

LEGISLATIVE BULL.

Extract from an act passed at the late session of the New York legislature, for the corporation of Canandaigua.

Be it further enacted, That the said trustees, or the major part of them, *as often as they shall make, ordain and publish*, any by-laws for restraining animals, *may be seized and impounded, and, after reasonable delay, may be sold at public vendue*, to pay the penalties imposed for the violation of any such ordinance, together with costs and charges.

Record.

Public Acts of the Sixteenth Congress.

(Concluded from page 14.)

LANDS.

1. An act to authorize the President of the United States to appoint a receiver of the public monies and register of the land office for the district of Lawrence county, in the Arkansas territory. (House, 17th March, 1820.)

The President to appoint a receiver and register for Lawrence county; and persons having claim to pre-emption in the district, to make it known to the register six weeks before issuing patents to soldiers of the late army.

2. An act further to suspend, for a limited time, the sale or forfeiture of lands, for failure in completing the payment thereon. (Senate, 30th March, 1820.)

Forfeiture of lands for nonpayment suspended till 31st March, 1821. The benefit limited to purchasers within 640 acres.

3. An act making further provision for the sale of the public lands. (Senate, 24th April, 1820.)

Public sales of lands in half quarter sections, after 1st July, 1820. At private sale, in entire, half, quarter, or half quarter sections, &c. Fractional sections, less than 160 acres, to be sold entire; with exception where special provision has been made for the sale of land in town lots. No credit on sales of public lands after 1st July, 1820; and complete payment must be made on the day of purchase. Purchasers at private sale must produce a receipt for the money before entry. The highest bidder at public sale failing to pay, the tract is to be again offered, and the failing bidder is rendered incapable of purchasing at such sales. After the 1st of July, 1820, the minimum price of lands to be one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre. Lands forfeited for nonpayment to be offered at public, before private, sale. Public sales to be kept open two weeks. In case of different applications at private sale, preference is to be given to the highest bidder.

4. An act to establish additional land offices in the states of Alabama and Illinois. (Senate, 11th May, 1820.)

Districts and land offices established at Tuscaloosa and Conecuh court house. Part of Shawneetown district, to form a separate district, with a land office at Vandalia. Another land district in Illinois, with a land office at Palestine. Registers and receivers to be appointed at these offices, with compensation, &c. as in other cases.

5. An act to revive the powers of the commissioners for ascertaining and deciding on claims to land in the district of Detroit, and for settling the claims to land at Green Bay and Prairie des Chiens, in the territory of Michigan. (House, 11th May, 1820.)

The powers of the commissioners for deciding on claims to lands in the district of Detroit, under the act of the 23d of April, 1812, revived. The commissioners are to examine and decide on claims filed; to employ an angent capable of translating the French language, for ascertaining titles at Green Bay and Prairie des Chiens; to make report to the secretary of the treasury, &c. 500 dollars for each commissioner and agent, with fees to the agent and register.

6. An act for the relief of certain settlers in the state of Illinois, who reside within the Vincennes land district. (House 11th May, 1820.)

Persons who would have been entitled to right of pre-emption, under the act of 5th February, 1813, had that act been so construed as to embrace those within the Vincennes district, &c.

are to be entitled to certificates for the excess paid above two dollars per acre, &c.; which certificate is made receivable in payment of debt to the United States for land. And persons who would have been entitled, &c. but who were not purchasers, are allowed until the 1st of September, 1820, to prove they would have been entitled; and the register, on being satisfied, is to grant a certificate, upon which every person is allowed to enter a quarter section at the minimum price.

7. An act supplementary to the several acts for the adjustment of land claims in the state of Louisiana. (Senate, 11th May, 1820.)

Claims for lands in the eastern district of Louisiana, described in the report of 20th November, 1816, confirmed. Persons claiming land west of the Mississippi, founded upon Spanish grants, &c. whose claims have not been heretofore filed, may, from 1st July till 31st December, 1820, deliver notices and evidences of claims; and persons neglecting, forfeit their rights. Persons claiming lands under Spanish grants, &c. according to former laws, whose claims have not been confirmed, allowed till 31st December, 1820, to deliver additional written evidence, &c. and the rights of persons neglecting are barred. No claim is to be recommended for more than a league square. The 5th section of the act of 3d March, 1811, concerning land claims in Louisiana, is revived and continued until 11th May, 1821. The registers are to receive 600 dollars additional.

8. An act extending the time allowed for the redemption of land sold for direct taxes, in certain cases. (House, 11th May, 1820.)

The time allowed for redemption under the acts of 9th Jan. 1815, and 5th March, 1816, extended three years; the extension is limited to the 1st June 1821; and interest must be paid. Equitable and reversionary interests may be redeemed. In case of the death or removal of collector, &c. the district judge, on petition, is to direct the marshal to make a deed of conveyance for lands sold for nonpayment of direct tax.

9. An act authorizing the sale of thirteen sections of land, lying within the land district of Canton, in the state of Ohio. (House, 11th May, 1820.)

13 sections, reserved by an act of 3d March, 1807, and subsequently ceded by the Delaware tribe of Indians, to be offered for sale at Wooster, &c.

10. An act to annex certain lands within the territory of Michigan to the district of Detroit. (House, 11th May, 1820.)

Public lands, to which the Indian title was extinguished by the treaty of Saguina, of 24th September, 1819, attached to the district of Detroit; and lands not reserved or appropriated, to be surveyed and offered for sale.

11. An act for the relief of persons holding confirmed unlocated claims for lands in the state of Illinois. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

Persons holding claims, within the tract reserved by the 3d section of the act of 16th April, 1814, allowed until 1st Nov. 1820, to register them; and the claims to be received in payment for public lands within the reserved tract, &c.

12. An act to authorize the governor of Illinois to obtain certain abstracts of lands from certain public offices. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

The register at Vincennes to furnish the governor of Illinois with a complete abstract of lands purchased at that office, which lie in Illinois. The expense to be defrayed by that state. The secretary of the treasury to furnish a complete abstract of military bounty lands patented to soldiers of the late army within that state, on application of the governor.

13. An act granting to the state of Ohio the right of pre-emption to certain quarter sections of land. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

The right of pre-emption to one quarter section granted to Ohio, at the minimum price, near the centre of each county, in the purchase under the treaty of St. Mary's of 20th Sept. 1818, for a seat of justice, which must be fixed on the lands selected. After deducting the sums paid by the state, the proceeds are to go to the erection of public buildings.

LAWS.

1. An act to authorize the secretary of state to cause the laws of the Michigan territory to be printed and distributed, and for other purposes. (House, 24th April, 1820.)

The laws of Michigan in force, to be printed under the direction of the secretary of state; the expense not to exceed 1250 dollars. Fifteen sets of the laws of the United States to be transmitted to Michigan, to be distributed as the local government may direct.

2. An act to amend the act, entitled "An act to provide for the publication of the laws of the United States, and for other purposes. (House, 11th May, 1820.)

Orders, resolutions, and laws, except those of a private nature, to be published in one newspaper in the district of Columbia, and not exceeding three in each state and territory. Treaties to be published in like manner, except Indian treaties, which are to be published in only one paper, in the state to which they relate. The 1st section of act of 20th April, 1818, is repealed; but the repeal is not to prevent the payment of compensation due.

LIGHT-HOUSES.

1. An act to authorize the erection of a light-house on one of the isles or shoals, near Portsmouth, New Hampshire. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

Besides the light-house designated in the title, this act provides for other light-houses, buoys, light vessels, piers, and bells, in other situations, and makes appropriations of money for them.

LOAN.

1. An act to authorize the President of the United States to borrow a sum not exceeding three millions of dollars. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

The President empowered to borrow not exceeding 3,000,000 dollars, at five per cent. reimbursable at any time after 1st Jan. 1832; or at six per cent., reimbursable at the pleasure of the United States. The bank of the United States may lend the money; or the secretary of the treasury may cause certificates of stock to be constituted and sold. An agent may be appointed to procure subscriptions or sell the stock: 4000 dollars are appropriated for the expenses of the loan; for the repayment of the principal and interest of which the surplus of

the annual appropriation of 10 millions of dollars is pledged.

MAINE.

An act for the admission of the state of Maine into the union. (House, 3d March, 1820.)

Maine, with the consent of the legislature of Massachusetts, admitted into the union from the 15th March, 1820. See *Congress*, 1.

MILITIA.

1. An act to establish an uniform mode of discipline and field exercise for the militia of the United States. (House, 12th May 1820.)

The system of discipline and field exercise observed by the regular army, to be observed by the militia; and baron Steuben's rules and discipline repealed.

MISSOURI.

1. An act to authorize the people of the Missouri territory to form a constitution and state government, and for the admission of such state into the union on an equal footing with the original states, and to prohibit slavery in certain territories. (House, 6th March, 1820.)

This act, in general, contains the same provisions as preceding acts in like cases. The election of representatives to form a convention is to take place in May, and the convention is to meet at St. Louis on the second Monday of June, 1820. The state is to be entitled to one representative in Congress until the 4th census; and there is the usual reservation of land for schools, for a seminary of learning, and for a seat of government. The 8th section of this act forever prohibits slavery and involuntary servitude, in the territory ceded by France under the name of Louisiana, north of 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, except that part included within the state of Missouri, unless in the punishment of crimes; but fugitives may be reclaimed.

NAVY.

1. An act authorizing the building of a certain number of small vessels of war. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

Not exceeding five, of not exceeding 12 guns each, at the discretion of the President. 60,000 dollars appropriated for the object.

2. An act to amend an act "making reservation of certain public lands for naval purposes," passed the 1st March, one thousand eight hundred and seventeen. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

The secretary of the navy no longer to appoint agents and surveyors. The duties to be performed by such surveyors of public lands as the President may designate.

3. An act to amend the act, entitled "An act to amend the act authorizing the employment of an additional naval force." (House, 15th May, 1820.)

Enlistment of able seamen, ordinary seamen, and boys, authorized during the continuance of the service or cruise; but not to exceed three years.

OFFICE, LIMITATION OF THE TERM OF.

1. An act to limit the term of office of certain officers therein named, and for other purposes. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

District attornies, collectors of customs, naval officers, surveyors of customs, navy agents, receivers of public monies for lands, registers of land offices, paymasters, apothecary and assistant apothecaries general, and the commissary general of purchases, are to be appointed for four years, removable at pleasure. The commissions of officers now in service are to cease as follows: if dated before 30th Sept. 1814, at their dates ensuing 30th Sept. 1820; if after 30th Sept. 1814, and before 1st Oct. 1816, at their dates ensuing 30th Sept. 1821. All others, four years from their dates. The President is authorized to regulate and increase the sum in bonds required from officers, from time to time: And the commissions of officers employed in collecting revenue, are to be made out and recorded at the treasury department.

PENSIONERS.

1. An act in addition to an act, entitled "An act to provide for certain persons engaged in the land and naval service of the United States in the revolutionary war," passed the 18th day of March, one thousand eight hundred and eighteen. (House, 1st May, 1820.)

No person is to receive a pension after payment of that due on 4th March, 1820, unless he exhibits a schedule of his whole estate and income, clothing and bedding excepted, and takes an oath. A certified copy of the schedule and oath, and opinion of the court, must be delivered to the secretary of war; but in case of insanity or incapacity, the schedule may be received by the court without oath. The original schedule must be filed in the office of the clerk of the court; and persons swearing falsely are to suffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury. The secretary of war may strike from the pension list the names of persons who, in his opinion, are not in indigent circumstances, &c. And persons who relinquished pensions to avail themselves of the act of 18th March, 1818, and stricken from the list in virtue of the third section of this act, are restored to pensions relinquished.

2. An act to revive and continue in force an act, entitled "An act to provide for persons who were disabled by known wounds received in the revolutionary war," and for other purposes. (House, 15th May, 1820.)

The act of the 10th April, 1816, revived and continued in force for one year. Pensions to commence at the time of completing the testimony of claims to them. Agents for paying invalid pensions, to give bonds, &c.

POST OFFICE.

1. An act in addition to an act, entitled "An act regulating the post office establishment." (Senate, 13th March, 1820.)

The president of the Senate pro tempore, and the speaker of the house of representatives, entitled to frank as the vice president of the United States.

POST ROADS.

1. An act to alter and establish certain post roads. (House, 13th May, 1820.)

This is an act, such as is usually passed every year, discontinuing and establishing post roads.

ROADS.

1. An act to authorize the appointment of commissioners to lay out the road therein mentioned. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

The President to appoint three persons, not citizens of Ohio, Indiana, or Illinois, to examine the country, and to lay out a road from Wheeling to some point on the left bank of the Mississippi, between St. Louis and the mouth of the

Illinois. Surveyors, &c. are provided for, and the commissioners are to report to the President. 10,000 dollars are appropriated to defray the expense.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

1. An act in addition to the several acts for the establishment and regulation of the treasury, war and navy departments. (House, 1st May, 1820.)

Unexpended monies, when the object of appropriation has been effected, are to be carried to the surplus fund; and balances of money drawn, after the object has been effected, are to be repaid to the treasury. The secretaries of war and navy are to lay before Congress, annually, a statement of appropriations of the preceding year, showing the amount, balance, &c. and the secretaries are to estimate the probable demands, and the balances are to be deducted from the estimates of the current year. Unexpended monies, in the hands of the treasurer, as agent of the war and navy departments, for more than two years, to be carried to the surplus fund till the expiration of the time limited for the completion of the object. Appropriations for the service of one year, are not to be transferred to another branch of expenditure in a different year, under act of 3d March, 1809.

No appropriations in the hands of the treasurer, as agent, to be subject to transfer under the act of the 3d March, 1809: but appropriations in the military department, for subsistence, forage and medical and hospital and quartermaster's department, may be applied from one or the other of these objects; and in the naval department, appropriations for provisions, for medicine and hospital stores, repairs of vessels and clothing, may be applied to either of those objects, by direction of the President. No contracts are to be made by the secretaries of departments, except under authority of a law, or an adequate appropriation; and except contracts for subsistence, clothing and quartermaster's department. No land is to be purchased for the United States, unless in virtue of a law. The secretary of the treasury is to annex to the annual estimates a statement of appropriations for the service of the year by former acts, and of sums in the treasury. The 9th section of this act repeals the 2d section of the appropriation act for military arrearages of the 16th February, 1818.

2. An act providing for the better organization of the treasury department. (Senate, 15th May, 1820.)

This act authorizes the designation of an officer of the treasury, by the President, who is to act as agent on behalf of the United States, for enforcing payment of monies due. For this purpose he may proceed by warrant of distress against principals and sureties. Persons who consider themselves aggrieved, may apply to a district judge, and obtain an injunction, first giving bonds. Clerks of courts are to furnish the agent with lists of judgments and decrees in suit, to which the United States are parties.

TREATIES, INDIAN.

1. Between the United States and the Chippewa nation of Indians, concluded at Saganaw, on the 24th September, 1819; ratified 25th March, 1820.

2. Between the United States and the tribe of Kickapoo Indians of Vermillion, concluded on the 30th of August, 1819; ratified 10th May, 1820. See *Appropriations*, 9.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

ON THE USES OF MILLET.

Read 20th June, 1820.

Frankford, 4th mo. 7th, 1820.

Respected Friend,—I will cheerfully communicate, as far as my knowledge extends, the information thou wouldst like to have respecting *Millet*. It will grow on any soil—a light loam suits it best; it will produce from 20 to 30 bushels of seed per acre; the seed is good food for horses, cows or swine, and on a farm where there is poultry raised, it is very nice food for young chickens; the straw is good fodder, both cattle and horses are fond of it; I consider it equal to equal quantities of clover hay, and where land has become what the farmers call clover-sick, I think it is an excellent substitute. It is an annual plant, and must be sown every spring; it will produce from two to three tons per acre; it is sown in the Fourth month—I believe the fore part of the month is the best time; it is generally cut in the Seventh month; it ought to stand until about half the seed is ripe before it is cut for hay, and when given to the cattle in the winter, the ripe seed will fall off on the barn floor, and with a little care can be collected for seed the ensuing spring; about half a bushel of seed to the acre is sufficient—some say less. I consider this plant most valuable as a substitute for the English grasses; after such a dry season as we had last summer, almost all the clover and timothy seed sown last spring perished. The millet, when cut either for hay or seed, sprouts immediately, like the orchard

grass, and makes very good fall pasture. I consider this plant the most valuable for hay, if it is left standing until the seed is fully ripe: the difficulty is very great to get the straw dry without losing the greater part of the seed in the field. I have no doubt it would answer a good purpose to sow it on purpose for pasture for milch cows.

Respectfully, thy friend,
NATHAN HARPER.

Isaac C. Jones.

In a note which I received from Nathan Harper, under date Fourth month 15th, 1820, he mentioned a mistake that he had made in the above letter, relative to the proper quantity of seed requisite to be sown on an acre of ground; that he therein mentioned about half a bushel per acre, whereas one peck was sufficient.

ISAAC C. JONES.

ON KEEPING COWS.

Read 20th June, 1820.

Burlington, 5th mo. 18th, 1820.

Esteemed Friend—The letter addressed by thee to my father, requesting information of the plan we pursued last winter in feeding our cows, he wishes me to answer, as I more particularly attended to it. I will endeavour to give it to thee as nearly as I can. The experiment was not as carefully observed as we could have wished for its communication to the Agricultural Society; however, if it will be of any service to farmers, it is at thy disposal. The saving of hay by this method of feeding has been considerable, and any plan of obviating the difficulties arising from the scarcity of customary provender must be worthy of some attention.

In the latter part of the fall we commenced threshing our wheat with Hambly and Pitt's machine. The straw being dry, a considerable part was cut up and blown out with the chaff. We concluded it would answer a good purpose to pickle this chaff, and feed it out to the cows, which was accordingly done. It was eaten, but not with as much relish as we expected. We then concluded, that steaming it would probably be more advantageous (by softening and warming it), and pursued our plan in the following manner. We had a tight hogshead (large enough to contain chaff for two messes), which we filled every night, and poured in three or four buckets of scalding water: it remained in this state, with a cover to confine the steam, till morning: we then took out enough of the steamed chaff for one feeding, and threw it into a mess-box, with a small quantity of salt and one pint of ground rye and corn to each cow, and mixed the whole together. Of this mess, we gave a half bushel, well heaped, to each cow; the residue in the hogshead we fed out (after the same manner) in the evening; at noon we gave them cornstalks. We had fourteen cows that were fed for five months in the abovementioned manner: they eat during this time about two tons of hay, and this was principally given them in the spring: the young cattle were not fed in this way, and with the horses there was no particular economy used. It was remarked by those who saw the cows, that they looked very well, and the quantity of milk from the milch cows was thought to have increased. We were very particular to have their stalls well littered every night with dry straw, which no doubt promoted their thriving condition.

With respect to a description of the machine for cutting straw and cornstalks, it had probably better be deferred till we can form a better opinion of its operation. We have tried it, and find it is susceptible of some little improvement. If we can, by cutting up the cornstalks, make them as valuable as straw for cattle, of which there is little doubt, it will be using two substitutes for the scarcity of hay.

With respect, I remain thy friend,
JOSEPH P. SMITH.

P. S.—I give a rough calculation that we made upon the probable economy of this plan, compared with that of feeding hay. We estimate the ground stuff at 70 cents per bushel; the chaff is not considered in the calculation, as it was before generally applied to very little use; the hay we calculate at $14 per ton, though none was selling here under $16.

Their keep for 5 months, at 31 cents per day - - -	$46 50
Two tons hay, at $14 - -	28 00
	$74 50
Their keep on hay alone, allowing each cow to eat 1½ ton in 5 months, would be 21 tons, at $14 per ton -	$294 00
Saving - - - -	$219 50

Isaac C. Jones.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

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Miscellany.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF SCRIPTURE.

From a Review in the Christian Observer of Morier's Second Journey through Persia, &c.

Our first extract will refer to that passage of scripture which represents John the Baptist as subsisting on "locusts and wild honey." The ambassador and his suite lay encamped at Bushire for some days, during which they experienced much inconvenience from the hot currents of air that blew from the southeast with such violence as to level three of their tents with the ground. The effect of this wind in parching and withering vegetables of every kind, is supposed by our traveller, and with great probability, to be pointed at in the image of "corn blasted before it be grown up," (2 Kings, xix. 26.) and in that passage of the Psalms, (ciii. 15, 16.) "The wind passeth over it, (the grass,) and it is gone."

"This southeast wind," Mr. Morier proceeds to remark, "constantly brought with it innumerable flights of locusts; but those which fell on this occasion, we were informed, were not of the predatory sort. They were three inches long from the head to the extremity of the wing, and their body and head of a bright yellow. The locust which destroys vegetation is of a larger kind, and of a deep red. As soon as the wind had subsided, the plain of Bushire was covered by a greater number of its poor inhabitants, men, women, and children, who came out to gather locusts, which they eat. They also dry and salt them, and afterwards sell them in the bazars, as the food of the lowest peasantry. When boiled, the yellow ones turn red, and eat like stale or decayed shrimps. The locusts and wild honey, which St. John ate in the wilderness, are perhaps particularly mentioned to show that he fared as the poorest of men, and not as a wild man, as some might interpret. Indeed, the general appearance of St. John, clothed with camel's hair (rather skin,) with a leathern girdle around his loins, and living a life of the greatest self-denial, was that of the older Jewish prophets, Zach. xiii. 4; and such was the dress of Elijah, the hairy man, with a girdle about his loins, described in 2 Kings, i. 8. At the present moment, however, we see some resemblance of it in the dervishes and *Gousheh nishins*, (or sitters in the corner,) who are so frequently met with in Persia; a set of men who hold forth their doctrines in open places, sometimes almost naked, with their hair and beard floating wildly about their head, and a piece of camel or deer skin thrown over their shoulders." pp. 43, 44.

Our next extract will be somewhat longer, but we regard the illustrations contained in it as both happy and important. The traveller is speaking of his arrival at a place called Baj-gah, in the way to Persepolis.

"Here," he says, "is a station of *rahdars*, or tollgatherers, appointed to levy a toll upon *kafilehs* or caravans of merchants; and who, in general, exercise their office with so much brutality and extortion as to be execrated by all travellers. The police of the highways is confided to them; and whenever any goods are stolen, they are meant to be the instruments of restitution; but when they are put to the test, are found to be inefficient: none but a man in power can hope to recover what he has once lost. They afford but little protection to the road, their stations being placed at too wide intervals to be able to communicate quickly; but they generally are perfectly acquainted with the state of the country, and are probably leagued with the thieves themselves, and can thus, if they choose, discover their haunts. Their insolence to travellers is unparalleled; and no man has ever gone through the country, either alone or with a caravan, who has not vented his indignation upon this vile police.

"The collections of the toll are farmed, consequently extortion ensues; and as most of the rahdars receive no other emolument than what they can exact over and above the prescribed dues from the traveller, their insolence is accounted for; and a cause sufficiently powerful is given for their insolence on the one hand, and the detestation in which they are held on the other.

"*Baj-gah* means 'the place of tribute:' it may also be rendered, *the receipt of custom;* and perhaps it was from a place like this that our Saviour called Matthew to him; because Matthew appears, from the 3d verse of the 10th chapter, to have been a publican; and publicans, who, in the 11th verse of the 9th chapter, are classed with sinners, appear to have been held in the same odium as are the rahdars of Persia.

"It also explains why Matthew, who was seated at the receipt of customs, is afterwards called a publican; and shows that in the choice of his disciples, our Saviour systematically chose them not only from among the poorest and humblest class of men, but also from those who, from their particular situation in life, were hated by all

ranks. Matthew, as a tollgatherer, must, like the rahdars have been a man known to all ranks of people, and detested on account of this profession. When he was seen having *power against unclean spirits*, with power to *heal all manner of sickness and disease*, and following one like our Saviour, his life, when compared with what he formerly was, must have been a constant miracle.

"The parable of the Pharisee and the publican, of the xviiith of Luke, 10th to 13th verse, will be more clearly understood by what has been abovementioned. Our Saviour, in bringing these two characters together, appears to have chosen them as making the strongest contrast between what, in the public estimation, were the extremes of excellence and villany. According to Josephus, the sect of the Pharisees was the most powerful among the Jews; and from what has been said of the rahdars, it may perhaps be explained why the Pharisee, in praying to God, should make 'extortioners' and 'the unjust,' almost synonymous terms with publicans: because we have seen from the peculiar office of the rahdar he is almost an extortioner by profession." pp. 69—71.

On the day a male child is to be weaned, they carry him to the mosque, "in the manner, perhaps, that Hannah took Samuel to the house of the Lord, when she had weaned him." (1 Samuel, i. 24.) "After having performed certain acts of devotion, they return home; and, collecting their friends and relations, they give a feast, of which they make the child also partake. The coincidence with scripture is here remarkable. 'And the child grew and was weaned; and Abraham made a great feast, the same day that Isaac was weaned.' Gen. xxi. 8."

"At Shoolgistoun, we were met by a Turkish tater with despatches from Constantinople; and never was a messenger more welcome, as he brought us news long expected from our country and families. We perceived his delight at meeting us, by the smile that broke out upon his solemn face, which, by the dismal account he gave of his treatment in Persia, had most likely never been cheated out of its gravity. When we asked him how he liked the Persians, he took hold of the collar of his cloak, and shaking it, exclaimed, 'God give them misfortunes! Liars, thieves, rogues! See, I have lost the head of my pipe; they have stolen my pistols. Heaven be praised that I have seen you at last.'

"The shaking of his coat (a very common act in Turkey) is no doubt an act of the same kind and import as that of St. Paul, who, when the Jews opposed themselves and blasphemed, 'shook his raiment.' Acts xviii. 6. An additional mark of reprobation is given in the other instances in which St. Paul and Barnabas shook off the dust of their *feet* against the Jews. This had been ordered by Christ himself. Mat. x. 14." p. 123.

The next example of coincidence is, perhaps, one of the most striking and instructive in the volume. We will give it at length.

"It was fixed that at the end of August the Ameen-ad-Dowlah was to give an entertainment to the ambassador and suite; and on the day appointed, as is usual in Persia, a messenger came to us at about 5 o'clock in the evening to bid us to the feast. I might make use of scriptural language to commence my narration: 'A certain man made a great supper, and bade many: and sent his servant at supper time to say to them that were bidden, Come, for all things are ready.' Luke xiv. 16 and 17. The difficulty which infidels have made to the passage of which this is the commencement, arises from the apparent harshness of asking people to an entertainment, and giving them no option, by punishing them in fact for their refusal. Whereas all the guests to whom when the supper was ready the servant was sent had already accepted the invitation, and were therefore already pledged to appear at the feast, at the hour when they might be summoned. They were not taken unprepared; and could not, in consistency or decency, plead any prior engagement. On alighting at the house, we were conducted through mean and obscure passages to a small square court, surrounded by apartments, which were the habitations of the women, who had been dislodged on the occasion; and as we entered into a low room we there found our host waiting for us, with about a dozen more of his friends. The ambassador was placed in the corner of honour, near the window, and the Ameen-ad-Dowlah next to him, on his left hand. The other guests were arranged around the room according to their respective ranks; amongst whom was an old man, a lineal descendant of the Seffi family, whom they called Nawab, and who took his seat next to the Ameen-ad-Dowlah. Although needy and without power, he is always treated with the greatest respect. He receives a daily sursat, or allowance from the king; which makes his case resemble that of Jehoiachin; for 'his allowance was a continual allowance given him of the king, a daily rate, all the days of his life.' 2 Kings, xxv. 30. This treatment is in the true spirit of Asiatic hospitality. Giving to the Nawab a high rank in society, is illustrative of the precedence given to Jehoiachin, by 'setting his throne above the throne of the kings that were with him in Babylon.' Idem. v. 28.

"When a Persian enters a mejlis, or assembly, after having left his shoes without, he makes the usual salutation of selam aleikum (peace be unto you), which is addressed to the whole assembly, as it were saluting the house (Matt. x. 12); and then measuring with his eye the degree of rank to which he holds himself entitled, he straightway wedges himself into the line of guests, without offering any apology for the general disturbance which he produces. It may be conceived that, among a vain people, the disputes which arise on matters of precedence are numerous; and it was easy to observe, by the countenance of those present, when any one had taken a higher seat than that to which he was entitled. Mollahs, the Persian scribes, are remarkable for their arrogance in this respect; and they will bring to mind the caution that our

Saviour gave to the Jews against their scribes, whom among other things he characterizes as loving 'the uppermost places at feasts.' Mark, xi. 39. The master of the entertainment has, however, the privilege of placing any one as high in the ranks of the mejlis as he may choose, and we saw an instance of it on this occasion; for when the assembly was nearly full, the governor of Kashan, a man of humble mien, although of considerable rank, came in, and had seated himself at the lowest place, when the Ameen-ad-Dowlah, after having testified his particular attentions to him by numerous expressions of welcome, pointed with his hand to an upper seat in the assembly, to which he desired him to move, and which he accordingly did.

"The strong analogy to be discovered here between the manners of the Jews, as described by our Saviour in the first of the parables contained in the 14th chapter of St. Luke, and those of the Persians, must be my best apology for quoting the whole passage at full length, particularly as it will more clearly point out the origin, and more strongly inculcate the moral of that beautiful antithesis with which it closes.—'When thou art bidden of any man to a wedding, sit not down in the highest place, lest a more honourable man than thou be bidden of him, and he that bade thee and him come and say to thee, Give this man place, and thou begin with shame to take the lowest place; but when thou art bidden, go and sit down in the lowest place, that when he that bade thee cometh, he may say unto thee, Friend, go up higher: then shalt thou have worship in the presence of them that sit at meat with thee. For whosoever exalteth himself shall be abased, and he that humbleth himself shall be exalted.'" pp. 142—144.

We shall content ourselves with citing one more illustration from this truly interesting work. A rebel chief, named Mahomed Zemaem Khan, who had risen in arms against the king of Persia, was taken prisoner, and carried before the king.

"When he had reached the camp, the king ordered Mahomed Khan, chief of his camel artillery, to put a mock crown upon the rebel's head, *bazubends* or armlets on his arms, a sword by his side; to mount him upon an ass, with his face towards the tail, and the tail in his hand; then to parade him throughout the camp, and to exclaim, 'This is he who wanted to be the king!' After this was over, and the people had mocked and insulted him, he was led before the king, who called for the Looties, and ordered them to turn him into ridicule, by making him dance and make antics against his will. He then ordered, that whoever chose, might spit in his face. After this he received the bastinado on the soles of his feet, which was administered by the chiefs of the Cajar tribe, and some time after, he had both his eyes put out." p. 351.

"The strong coincidence," adds Mr. Morier, "between these details and the most awfully affecting part of our own scripture history, is a striking illustration of the permanence of eastern manners."

ABBE GREGOIRE.

The ostensible reason for the exclusion of the abbé Gregoire from the chamber of deputies, was of a technical kind, relating to some irregularity in his election; but the real feelings of the deputies, and their personal dislike of the individual, were avowed with no little vehemence and tumult on the occasion. And yet M. Gregoire had no part whatever in the death of that monarch. He proposed, it is true, the abolition of royalty; and, on various occasions, used very unmeasured and unwarrantable language, because he used the language of the day. But he was not present in the assembly when the king was tried and condemned. He was then on a mission at a considerable distance. He wrote a letter, indeed, to the president, expressing his clear opinion of the king's guilt, but yet condemning him not to *die*, but to *live*. He was decidedly adverse to inflicting upon him the punishment of death. It is worth inquiring how it has happened that, under these circumstances, and with so many around him, stained by still deeper shades of criminality, M. Gregoire should have become so generally obnoxious as to be rejected with indignation, and almost with abhorrence, from the chamber of deputies. To us the fact appears not difficult of explanation. In the first place, Gregoire stood forward singly in the defence of Christianity, when proscribed by the almost unanimous voice of his revolutionary associates. His zeal in this hated cause roused the contempt and hatred of many even of his own political party. In the next place, he had been an active, and we may say leading, member in the society of Les Amis des Noirs; and, even during the iron reign of Bonaparte, he ceased not to lift his voice with courage and energy against the slave trade, and against that frightful system of colonial bondage which Bonaparte sought to restore in St. Domingo. He stood long single in this cause also. He became, therefore, the mark for all the arrows of detraction and calumny which the *ex-colons*, (a most powerful and numerous body,) the slave traders of Havre, Bourdeaux, and Nantz, and all their adherents, could direct against him. But more than all this, since the restoration of Louis XVIII. he has exerted himself with extraordinary ability, perseverance, and effect, in opening the eyes of his countrymen to the dangers likely to arise from the re-establishment of the Jesuits, and from the insidious pretensions of the court of Rome to interfere in the affairs

of the Gallican church. He has become, therefore, on this account, particularly obnoxious to the bigoted adherents of the papacy, and above all to that active, insinuating, restless, and unprincipled body the Jesuits, who have spared no pains to blacken his character, and to confirm and increase the prejudices that had been excited against him on other grounds. Had he left the slave traders and Jesuits in peace, we believe that he might have very quietly taken his seat as a legislator. But the friends of the pope's power and pretensions, and the friends also of slavery and the slave trade, dreaded the presence of so powerful and so fearless an antagonist in the chamber of deputies. The periodical work which expresses his sentiments on religious and ecclesiastical subjects had already done so much to defeat the machinations of the court of Rome and its satellites the Jesuits, and to prevent the revival in France of the more gross corruptions of popery, and had so boldly asserted the right of all the members of the Catholic church to the use of the holy scriptures, that the utmost alarm and consternation were naturally enough created by his election, and the utmost efforts were therefore made to nullify it. Those efforts, as might be expected, have proved successful. Whether the decision to which they have led be right, we will not presume to determine. Thus much, however, we feel ourselves bound in common justice and charity to say in behalf of one who, whatever may have been his errors, has, on many grounds, deserved well of his fellow men, but who seems at present to be abandoned by all the world.* [*Ch. Obs.*

THE PROMPTER—NO. III.

The Fidgets.

This is my text. When a man or woman is very restless, and has many oddities, he or she is said to *fidget.* A man who would not marry, for fear of the expense of a family, but will keep twenty ducks to feed and a dozen cats and dogs to play with, gets the name of an odd old bachelor. In truth he has the *fidgets.* The lonely maiden of fifty, whose companions are a pair of monkies, half a dozen puppies or squirrels, and perhaps, for a pretty little pet, a huge bear, or mastiff, is said to *fidget.* A man who is fairly *hyp'd,* and a hystericky woman, are remarkable for fidgets. They are much laughed at for their oddities. But those who think these are the only people who have the fidgets, think wide of the truth. These have only *domestic* fidgets; but the fidgets is a disorder as various in its operations and appearances as a fever. Simple fidgets, in the first stage, is like a slow fever—it is not violent, but sticks fast to the patient. When the disorder rises to what is vulgarly called the *tantrums,* it then resembles the fever and ague. But in the last stages, when it rises to what is called the *blue devils,* it is like an inflammatory or malignant fever. When the violence of the disorder abates, it often becomes of the putrid kind, and the patient is intolerable.

How little do men observe the most obvious things. I know fifty men who are in the last stages of the fidgets, and the bystanders have not found out their disease. The most dangerous kind of fidgets is the *political fidgets.* It begins with universal itching; and the patient is often seen scratching his head and back, as he walks along the streets. Now the itch is said to be occasioned by little animalcules in the skin; so the fidgets, I apprehend, with deference to the faculty, may be occasioned by a vermicular animal in the brain. Why not? The madness of dogs is said to arise from a little worm under the tongue, and the political fidgets in the last stages, resembles the hydrophobia to a tittle. The patient begins with simple scratching; soon he begins to bite and snarl: He then becomes incoherent; and in his last ravings, nothing can be heard but Congress—treason—election—six dollars a day. All the world cries out the man is mad. No such thing! he is only *fidgetty.*

But of all fidgets which have fallen under my observation, the most laughable is the *purse fidgets.* This shows itself in a variety of ways in different professions.—The lawyer when he has this disorder cries, adjournment—continuance—false verdict—my client is wronged—I'll have a new trial. The physician exclaims, poh! talk of incurables! the belly ache—consumption—cancers—come to me in season. The pious parson has the offer of a parish with a salary of one hundred pounds a year—he doubts whether he has a call from hea-

* The periodical work to which we have alluded above, is entitled "La Cronique Religieuse." It deserves the particular attention of the Christian world at the present moment, being perhaps the first public attempt, since the days of Erasmus, by members of the Roman Catholic church, to expose the errors and corruptions of their own body. The conductors of this work appear to be themselves Jansenists in principle.

ven—he protracts—he has another offer of one hundred and thirty pounds—his doubts are removed—he sees clearly he has a *call*. Now what is all this but the *purse fidgets?*

But look ye to the merchant for the purse fidgets. Here it shows itself at first by the patient's whispering about *cheap—cheap*—then the patient enters the *church*, or the *lodge*, to secure the custom of the brethren; then he becomes a fanatic in religion; talks with the minister and the deacons; goes to the night meetings; finally the patient begins to rave—here we go—give the lead in cheapness—penny on the shilling—come and see—goods *must* be sold—cut and slash—cheap as dirt—ho, ho, ho! What is this but purse fidgets? When a man bellows and blusters, let us be out of harm's way. A beggar wraps his handkerchief about his leg—he limps wofully while in sight—he gets his penny—but out of sight, he walks as straight as an arrow. When my family go to town a shopping, I tell them to shun *cheap shops*, for the owners have the fidgets—the *purse fidgets*—the worst kind of fidgets. Reputation is dear to us—no man makes himself a fool for *nothing*—he has his views—if he sells one or two articles very cheap, it is ten to one, he'll cheat us in every thing else.

Oxford.—The following subjects are proposed for the Chancellor's Prizes, for the ensuing year, namely:—Latin Verse: Newtoni Systema. English Essay: The Influence of the Drama. Latin Essay: Quænam fuerit Concilii Amphictyonici Constitutio, et quam vim in tuendis Græciæ Libertatibus et in Populorum Moribus formandis habuerit? Sir Roger Newdigate's Prize: For the best Composition in English Verse—The Temple of Diana at Ephesus. [*Ch. Obs.*

Germany.—Previously to the year 1805, there were no other establishments for the blind, in Germany and the adjacent states, than the common hospitals; but since that period, several have been organized: one at Vienna, in 1805; one at Berlin, in 1806; one at Prague, in 1807; at Amsterdam, in 1808; at Dresden, in 1809; at Zurich, in 1810; and at Copenhagen, in 1811. The education of the blind, in these institutions, is on the plan of one at Paris, as described in a work of Guillé on the subject. Similar establishments are organizing in Wurtemberg, and in all the chief cities of Bavaria. [*Ib.*

Italy.—Sir Humphrey Davy has written from Rome, that of the number of manuscripts found in the ruins of Herculaneum, 88 have been unrolled and are now legible; 319 have been utterly destroyed; and 24 have been given away as presents. It is hoped that from 100 to 120 may yet be saved out of 1265, which remain to be unrolled by means of a chemical operation. [*Ib.*

Ionian Islands.—A university has been lately established at Corfu, by the earl of Guilford, under the auspices of the British government. His lordship, who is appointed chancellor by the Prince Regent, has nominated to the different chairs, Greeks of the first abilities; and his intentions have been seconded, with much effect, by some persons of eminence on the spot. The university of Oxford, in acknowledgment of his lordship's zeal in the promotion of Greek literature, has conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Civil Law; and, as a further token of the interest taken by that learned body in the success of the measure, it has resolved to present to the Ionian University all such books, printed at the Clarendon press, as may be thought useful to that institution. An Ionian Bible Society has also been recently established, and promises great utility, not only to the Seven Islands, but to every part of Greece and Albania. Among its founders we perceive the names of the president of the Ionian senate, the Greek bishop, and Roman Catholic vicar general, with many of their clergy, &c. [*Ib.*

GAS FROM DARTMOOR PEAT.

Amongst other benefits which promise to attend the contemplated improvements on Dartmoor, is a recent discovery, that its peat may be converted into gas, which produces a light not to be excelled, apparently not at all dangerous in its use. This peat is of a black colour, close in texture, and inexhaustible in quantity. A short time since an experiment was tried with it at Prince's Town, in the presence of sir T. Tyrrwhitt, B. Tucker, esq. R. A. Nelson, esq. secretary of the navy board, and many other gentlemen, who were pleased to express their entire confidence in its capability of producing gas, which was found equal in duration of burning to that obtained from a like quantity of coal. The peat after yielding gas, provides excellent coke, which is useful for many purposes in

alchymy, chemistry, handicrafts, cookery, &c. It is to be hoped that this valuable discovery (for which the company are considerably indebted to the experiments of Mr. J. Shillibeer) will not be permitted to sleep, but be soon called into active service, in all the towns lying around the moor, by which great numbers of male and female children of the poor will derive a livelihood in raising peat, whilst it offers an infinitely cheaper mode of lighting the streets than any heretofore presented to the public. The facilities of conveyance by the Plymouth and Dartmoor railway, will render the price of peat but a trifle, and thus tend to circulate it generally, by exportation, wherever required, either for the production of gas and coke, or other purposes.

COLD AND WARM BATHING.

The following directions for the use of the warm and cold bath are extracted from an interesting treatise on the subject, by Dr. Coffin, of Boston.

There is a considerable diversity of opinion respecting the best time for bathing, some preferring the morning, some the forenoon, and others the evening. The best time, however, for bathing, is the hour before dinner; and next to this is undoubtedly before breakfast; when, if there is any deficiency of warmth, the temperature of the body must be raised by any sufficient exercise.

It is always hurtful to bathe soon after taking food; it is, indeed, never advisable to bathe, except when the stomach is empty, or nearly so. After leaving the water, the body should be briskly wiped with a coarse towel, or piece of crash, and immediately covered with clothes sufficient to excite, or preserve, the temperature of health.

After bathing it is well to take a moderate degree of exercise. But the invalid should be careful not to prolong the ride or walk, especially if exposed to the rays of a hot sun, so far as to produce sweating or lassitude; as this would counteract all the refreshment and renovated strength which would otherwise attend the practice.

To bathe every second, or third day, is ordinarily sufficient for all the good purposes of bathing. Daily bathing is not unfrequently found to produce a degree of languor and wasting of the body; but if no other bad effects arise, these symptoms will soon disappear after discontinuing the bath.

The shock of the shower bath is more formidable and unpleasant to most people than that of sea bathing; it has however, several conveniences over the latter. This may be taken on rising from bed, without going from home, or costing any time worth regretting; and the quantity of water and its temperature can be easily adapted to the state of him who receives it. And as its impression is more transient than the effects of sea bathing, it may be used more frequently than the latter.

From what has been said, I would deduce the following rules, by which the practice of cold bathing should be regulated:

1. We are never to enter the cold bath when the temperature of the body is below the standard health; if it is in a few degrees above this, the bathing will be proportionably more grateful and invigorating.

2. We should never remain long in the water; no longer than to secure a vigorous reaction. The common mistake on this point is, not only to remain in the water till the glow of warmth arising from the shock is established, but till it is dissipated by continuing in the water too long, or by returning to it too often.

3. We are to bathe before breakfast, or better before dinner.

4. We are to bathe when the stomach is empty, or nearly so. And

5. We are to bathe every second or third day only—or if our bathing depends on the tide, we may bathe several days in succession, and then omit it as many.

The warm bath could not have been safely recommended, or advantageously used, as a preventive or cure, before the invention of the thermometer, by which when practicable, and not by the feelings of the patient or bather, ought its temperature to be regulated. Where a thermometer cannot be had, the rule should be this: bring the water to the temperature which feels neither hot nor cold to the arm, or some part of the body usually covered, and after entering the bath at this degree of warmth, its heat may be raised to the temperature just mentioned.

Of commencing a course of warm bathing, the first thing to be attended to is the heat of the water. Any bath may be denominated warm, whose heat is sufficient to produce and continue the sensation of warmth, while we are in it.

But there is no one degree of heat that will always produce this effect, because the animal heat of different persons is not always the same, nor the temperature of the same person at all times alike, but varies

with the different states and conditions in which he may be placed.

This fact is very important, though rarely noticed; it is important, because without attending to it we cannot so modify the temperature of the bath as to suit it to particular cases.

Whether the warm bath is, in any given instance, to be grateful, or otherwise, hurtful or beneficial, must depend chiefly on its temperature and duration being properly adjusted to the state of him who bathes. The best temperature for persons in health, is that degree of heat which will produce the most pleasurable sensations.

This degree of heat corresponds, most commonly, to the 93d degree of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

We are, then, to bring the water to the temperature, before we enter the bath, and after being in the water two or three minutes, and attending to our sensations, we are to add hot or cold water, so as to bring the bath to that degree of warmth which is most grateful to our feelings.

It is better to enter the warm bath when it is too cool rather than too warm. If we enter it too warm, we lose the power of judging accurately, by our sensations, of that degree of heat which would be most pleasant at the time, and ultimately most beneficial; whereas, if we enter the bath below the proper temperature, it is easy to correct the only inconvenience that follows from this mistake.

Cases are recorded where the mistake and the injury have arisen from taking the bath at too low a temperature.

The necessity of exercise before and after the warm bath, is every day evinced, where bathing is practised—and must be held as one of those general rules from which there are few exceptions.

Every irregular nervous action to which the human constitution is liable, is known to be influenced by the medium in which we breathe.

The valetudinarian, whose health is tolerable under the mild atmosphere of Italy, or the south of France, passes a miserable season in regions less temperate and more variable.

Hence we can reason on the effects resulting from the repeated and well regulated use of the warm bath on diseased nervous sensations.

A bath of the *same* degree of heat as the animal temperature of the person using it, will, for a few minutes after immersion, *increase* that heat very considerably; even if it be five degrees lower than the usual standard, which is 98 degrees, it will raise the animal heat to 100 degrees.

This proceeds from a cessation of the cooling process of evaporation from the skin, and the augmentation of heat occasioned by the medium in which the body is immersed, added to what is at the same time generated internally.

This fact instructs us to the proper mode of applying the warm bath in a variety of cases, where success depends altogether on the well regulated temperature of the bath, more particularly in nervous affections, in which the most minute attention should be paid to all the symptoms, and to the whole process of cure.

Tiberius is said to have lost his life by an improper use of the bath.

Having spoken of the proper temperature of the warm bath, we may next consider the best time for taking it.

In general, the practice, as mentioned by Plutarch, and others of the Greeks, of using the bath previous to their principal meal, which corresponded in time nearly with our present dining hour, may be considered as preferable to any other.

Our healthy digestion has a very natural connexion with the salutary functions of the skin, and no stimulus can be so natural to it as a well regulated bath, at this particular time of the day; while the restlessness, which it often occasions when used later in the day, will be avoided.

It may sometimes be allowable to take a warm bath before breakfast, and sometimes in the evening, particularly after travelling in hot weather and dusty roads; but on most occasions the forenoon, after the morning meal is digested, is the best part of the day for bathing, whether cold or warm.

The apprehension of being chilled, and of suffering from cold by exposure to the open air, after the warm bath, is not well founded; in numberless instances the usual occupations of life are pursued through the remainder of the day, not only without injury, but with renewed animation and success.

It is true, that in rising from the warm bath, a cool air feels more chilly than the same atmosphere would do, in ascending from the cold bath; and there is a rapid evaporation of heat from the skin, while the body remains uncovered.

This requires, especially where the health is delicate, that the air of the apartment, when we bathe in cold water, should be made pleasantly warm. With this precaution, and suitable clothing, there is no more

danger of going into the cold air from a warm bath, than from a warm bed in a winter's morning. The body is refreshed and invigorated by heat in both cases, and thereby rendered the better able to resist cold.

Whenever I have passed a night without sleep, and been incommoded at the same time with cold, I have always in consequence of this exposure and privation, been the more feeble and chilly the next day; and with this observation I think the general experience of every soldier and physician will accord.

I have taken the warm bath in the warmest and coldest divisions of our year—more with a view to observe its effects on my own health and sensations, than because I have needed its restorative influence at the time; and I can truly say, after bathing in both extremes of weather, that I have been equally and uniformly less sensible of the inconvenience from heat or cold.

I have always felt more light, cheerful and active, and more inclined and better fitted for a full and successful employment of the powers of mind and body.

That the tendency of warm bathing is not to weaken or relax, is sufficiently proved by its exhilarating influence on those in health, as well as by its giving strength in many diseases of debility.

The utility of bathing depends also, in a considerable degree, on the length of time during which we remain in the bath. On this point, a variety of opinions prevail, and there is some difficulty in laying down a general rule.

As the heat of the bath increases that of the person taking it, generally from five to eight degrees beyond its own temperature, if this temperature should be perfectly suited to the circumstances of the case, the pulse becomes regular, and commonly much less frequent.

These circumstances are of considerable importance in determining the proper time of continuing in the bath; for we may be assured, if it should alter the tone of the circulation from a morbid to a natural state, that its ultimate effect will be of a most salutary kind; and even the refreshing feeling it gives, while we are under its direct influence, may be regarded as a warrant of the advantage to be expected.

CONGRESS OF '76.

It may gratify some of our readers to peruse the following very brief notice of the signers of the DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE. It will be seen, that of numbers of them we have no account; and yet the article is furnished us by a gentleman whose sources of information are as various as those of any person in this vicinity. Of the whole number, one-fifth part were natives of this state. The survivors are only four: John Adams, William Floyd, Charles Carroll, and Thomas Jefferson. [*Worcester Gazette.*

Delegates from New Hampshire.

Josiah Bartlett—Born at Amesbury, Massachusetts; a physician: previous to the revolution, a member of the legislature, and afterwards chief justice and president of the state of New Hampshire. Died May, 1795, aged 66.

William Whipple—A brigadier-general of the New Hampshire troops, in 1777, afterwards a member of the council, and a judge of the supreme court. Died November, 1785.

Matthew Thornton—Chief justice of the county of Hillsborough, and afterwards a judge of the supreme court. Died June, 1803, aged 88.

Delegates from Massachusetts.

John Hancock—Born at Braintree; president of the provincial legislature, and afterwards president of the national congress, the first governor of Massachusetts after the revolution, first elected in 1780, and again in 1787. Died October, 1793, aged 56.

Samuel Adams—Born at Boston, 1722; secretary of the state, and president of the senate of Massachusetts, elected lieutenant governor in 1789, and governor in 1794. Died Oct. 1802, aged 80.

John Adams—Born at Braintree, October 19, 1735; now living, in his 85th year.

Elbridge Gerry—Born at Marblehead, 1744; a delegate to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, envoy to France, 1794; governor of Massachusetts, and vice president of the United States. Died Nov. 1814, aged 70.

Robert Treat Paine—Born at Weymouth, 1731; attorney general, judge of the supreme court, and member of the council of Massachusetts. Died May, 1814, aged 83.

Delegates from Rhode Island.

Stephen Hopkins—Born in Providence, 1707; several years governor of the colony, a delegate to the congress at Albany in 1754, chief justice of Rhode Island. Died July, 1785, aged 79.

William Ellery—Born at Newport, 1727; sustained various civil offices previous to the revolution, afterwards commissioner of the loan office, and collector of Newport. Died February, 1820, aged 93.

Delegates from Connecticut.

Roger Sherman—Born at Newton, Massachusetts, 1721; one of the assistants and judge of the supreme court of Connecticut. Member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, representative and senator in Congress. Died July, 1793, aged 72.

Samuel Huntington—Born at Windham; member of the legislature, attorney general, judge of the supreme court, and member of the council of Connecticut, president of Congress in 1779, afterwards lieutenant governor and chief justice, and in 1786 elected governor of Connecticut. Died January, 1796, age 64.

William Williams—Speaker of the house of

representatives, and member of the council of Connecticut. Died August, 1811, aged 80.

Oliver Wolcott—Elected governor of Connecticut in 1796, and died December, 1797, aged 71.

Delegates from New York.

William Floyd—Now living, in his 87th year.

Philip Livingston—A delegate to the Congress of 1765, and again elected in 1774.

Francis Lewis.

Lewis Morris.

Delegates from New Jersey.

Richard Stockton—A judge, and member of the council of the province. In 1776 he had an equal number of votes on the first ballotting for governor of the state with Mr. Livingston, who was subsequently chosen. Died March, 1781.

John Witherspoon—Born in Scotland, 1722; came to America in 1768, and was president of Princeton College from that time until his death, Nov. 1791, aged 73.

Francis Hopkinson—Born in Pennsylvania; judge of the admiralty and of the district court. Died May, 1791.

John Hart.

Abraham Clark.

Delegates from Pennsylvania.

Robert Morris—Born at Manchester, England; superintendent of the finances of the U. States from 1781 to 1785, afterwards a member of the assembly of Pennsylvania, and a delegate to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States. Died May, 1806, aged 72.

Benjamin Rush—Born in Pennsylvania, 1745; physician general of the military hospitals for the middle departments in 1777, member of the convention which framed the state constitution, and treasurer of the mint of the United States; one of the first physicians and medical writers of the age. Died April, 1813, aged 69.

Benjamin Franklin—Born at Boston, Massachusetts, 1706; member of the Congress of 1754, agent for several of the colonies in England, 1757; president of the convention which framed the constitution of Pennsylvania, 1776. The same year he was sent minister to France, and, together with Lee and Deane, formed the treaty of alliance; assisted in forming the treaty of peace with England, 1783; president of the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania, 1785. Died April, 1790, aged 85.

John Morton—Speaker of the assembly of Pennsylvania, 1775; afterwards a judge of the supreme court.

George Clymer—Joint treasurer of the united colonies, with Mr. Hillegas, in 1775; delegate to the convention which framed the constitution of the United States, supervisor of excise for Pennsylvania, 1791; first president of the academy of fine arts at Philadelphia, 1805. Died January, 1813, aged 73.

James Smith—Appointed in 1780 judge of the high court of errors and appeals for Pennsylvania.

George Taylor—Member of the assembly previous to the revolution, and of the committee of correspondence in 1774.

James Wilson—Member of the convention which framed the constitution of the U. States, and of Pennsylvania; appointed in 1791 judge of the supreme court of the United States; professor of law in the university of Pennsylvania. Died September, 1798.

George Ross—A member of the assembly previous to the revolution; afterwards vice president of the Executive council of Pennsylvania.

Delegates from Delaware.

Cæsar Rodney—Member of the congress of 1765; speaker of the assembly of Delaware, 1774.

George Read—Vice president of the state; judge of the court of appeals in cases of captures by sea; member of the convention which framed the constitution, and senator of the U. States.

Thomas M'Kean—Speaker of the assembly previous to the revolution; member of the convention which framed the constitution of Delaware in 1776, and the first governor of the state; president of Congress in 1781; chief justice and governor of Pennsylvania. Died January, 1817, aged 84.

Delegates from Maryland.

Samuel Chase—Chief justice of the general court of Maryland, and afterwards a judge of the supreme court of the United States. Died June, 1811.

William Paca—Judge of the maritime court of appeals previous to 1782, and was that year elected governor of the state; appointed in 1789 district judge of Maryland. Died 1799.

Thomas Stone—Died October, 1787, aged 44.

Charles Carroll—Now living.

Delegates from Virginia.

George Wythe—Born in Virginia, 1726; speaker of the house of burgesses, and chancellor of the state. Died June, 1806, aged 81.

Richard Henry Lee—President of Congress, 1784; afterwards a senator from Virginia. Died in June, 1794, aged 68.

Thomas Jefferson—Now living.

Benjamin Harrison.

Thomas Nelson—Member of the council, and elected governor of the state in 1781. Died January, 1789.

Francis Lightfoot Lee—Died April, 1797, aged 63.

Carter Braxton.

Delegates from North Carolina.

William Hooper.

Joseph Hewes. Died Nov. 1779.

John Penn.

Delegates from South Carolina.

Edward Rutledge—A member of the council, and elected governor of the state in 1793. Died January, 1800.

Thomas Heyward.

Thomas Lynch.

Arthur Middleton—President of the council of the colony before the revolution.

Delegates from Georgia.

Button Guinnett—President of the council of Georgia. Killed in a duel with general M'Intosh, May, 1777.

Lyman Hall—Governor of Georgia, in 1783. Died February, 1791, aged 66.

George Walton—Chief justice of the state; member of the convention which framed the constitution of the United States; governor of Georgia, and senator in Congress. Died February, 1804.

MR. JAY.

"Greece repeated with admiration the names of Solon and Lycurgus, with those of Miltiades and Leonidas; Rome gloried as much in the censorship of Cato as in the victories of Pompey; and the Chinese, the ancient people of Asia, so famous for the wisdom of their laws, raise triumphal arches to the magistrates, as to the warriors."

By a separate and secret article of the treaties of 1778 between the United States and France, a right was reserved to Spain to accede to these treaties, with the same privileges and obligations as those of France. In pursuance of this article, in September, 1779, Congress appointed Mr. Jay, then president of that body, minister plenipotentiary to Spain.

The object of this mission was, by forming treaties with Spain similar to those which had been concluded with France, to secure her co-operation and assistance in the establishment of our independence. After encountering a storm which compelled the vessel to seek refuge at Martinique, Mr. Jay arrived at Cadiz in January, 1780.

He immediately despatched Mr. Carmichael, the secretary of legation to Madrid, with a letter to the count Florida Blanca, the Spanish minister for foreign affairs, announcing his arrival at Cadiz, and the object of his mission. After experiencing some delay, he received an answer from the count, inviting him to come to Madrid, but at the same time informing him [notwithstanding Spain was by this time engaged in the war against England] that he could not be publicly received until certain forms, information and other points, were first ascertained. Mr. Jay accordingly proceeded to Madrid. Soon after his arrival there, count Florida Blanca requested Mr. Jay to prepare and send him, for the information of his Catholic Majesty, a memoir, stating the condition and resources of the United States; conformably to which request, Mr. Jay drew up, and delivered to the count, a representation, containing an abstract of the state constitutions, and of the articles of confederation; stating also the number of our people, their unanimity, and resolution to maintain their independence, the number of regular troops, frigates, and private armed vessels; the condition of the militia, including the great body of the people, who were all accustomed to the use of arms, and resolved to defend their country; and concluding with the observation, that with these powerful means of establishing our independence, we were nevertheless in want of arms and ammunition, clothing for our armies, and money to assist us in prosecuting the war.

Owing to the difficulty of collecting requisitions from the several states, and the depreciation of the bills of credit, Congress wisely resolved, towards the close of 1779, that the further issue of paper money should be so limited that the whole sum should not exceed two hundred millions of dollars, and that resort should be had to foreign loans. In addition to the advances made and expected from France, Congress determined to open a loan for one hundred thousand pounds sterling in Holland, and to ask the like sum of Spain.

No notice of this measure was given to Mr. Jay until April, 1780, when he received information thereof, and that bills had been, and would be drawn upon him, at six months sight, for the sum that it was presumed he would be able to obtain from Spain. Mr. Jay gave immediate notice of this measure to the count Florida Blanca, in the hope that Spain would supply the necessary funds to enable him to accept and pay these drafts.

In the following month of May, count Florida Blanca invited Mr. Jay to a conference with him; in the course of which he spoke openly on two points; first, respecting the bills, concerning which he said, that the king, being well disposed to America, would advance to them from twenty-five to forty thousand pounds sterling, towards the close of the current, or in the beginning of the next year; that Spain had lately suffered great losses, especially in her marine; that her situation resembled that of Tantalus, she having money in abundance in America, but none in Spain; that these considerations would serve to explain the smallness of their advances, but that the king's credit was good, and that the bills drawn upon Mr. Jay by Congress, must be accepted on his majesty's credit.

The second point respected the proposed treaty, concerning which the count observed, that his majesty having formed an opinion relative to the navigation of the Mississippi, the exclusive use whereof he deemed to be of the highest importance to the safety of his American dominions, would have no difficulty in concluding a treaty, provided the same contained a satisfactory provision on this head.

Mr. Jay expressed the difficulty which would be likely to arise from an uncertain and insufficient fund for the payment of the bills which should be drawn upon him; that in affairs of this sort there was but one of two courses, either to pay or refuse payment, giving the reasons for the latter.

In regard to the treaty, and the king's demand of the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi, Mr. Jay stated, that several of the states were bounded by that river, the free navigation of which, to and from the ocean, would become indispensable to the American citizens residing upon its eastern bank, as well as to those who should inhabit the borders of rivers falling from the east into the Mississippi; and he frankly and firmly declared to the count, that the free navigation of this river to and from the ocean, was made by his instructions an ultimatum from which he was not at liberty to depart. The conference was terminated with expressions of mutual civility, and by permission of the count, the purport thereof was communicated by Mr. Jay to the French ambassador at Madrid.

As the bills drawn on Mr. Jay began to make their appearance, he became perplexed respecting their acceptance, from the uncertainty of funds to pay them. He therefore requested the Spanish minister to inform him with precision how much money the Spanish government would advance for this purpose. The count Florida Blanca gave Mr. Jay no satisfactory information on these points, but again authorized him to accept the bills on the king's credit. In these circumstances Mr. Jay explained his situation to Dr. Franklin, who having at his disposition a sum of money received from France, furnished Mr. Jay with a portion of it, to assist him in paying the bills which had been drawn upon him. Spain also advanced to Mr. Jay, for the same

purpose,* one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, informing him at the same time that no further advance would be made to him.

With those means Mr. Jay was able to take up all the bills drawn upon him, except about twenty-five thousand pounds sterling, which sum, he being unable to pay it, he caused to be protested for nonpayment, assigning in the protest as the reason thereof, that he had accepted the bills in the expectation, and on the assurance, that the Spanish government would provide the money to pay them, but that being disappointed in this respect, and unable to apply in season to Congress for money to pay the same, he was obliged to suffer them to be protested for nonpayment. Dr. Franklin having, not long after this transaction, obtained a further loan of money from France, Mr. Jay was authorized by him to draw for a sum sufficient to pay these protested bills; which was accordingly done, and the whole of the bills were thus ultimately paid and taken up.

In the month of May, 1780, sir John Dalrymple came to Madrid from Portugal, giving out that he was bound to England by the way of France, the occasion of a land voyage being the health of his lady, who accompanied him. Not long after his arrival at Madrid, count Florida Blanca communicated to Mr. Jay what sir John called a historical anecdote of lord Rochford. Lord Rochford, who was secretary of state in England a few years before, had conceived the project of a grand confederation between Spain, France, Portugal and England, for three precise objects.

1. A mutual guaranty of all the possessions of each power in America and the two Indies, with a stipulation that war in Europe should not extend to, nor affect those countries, and specifying the number of ships and troops to be furnished by the several confederates.

2. A provision that Spain, France, and Portugal should participate in the trade of the British colonies, reserving certain preferences to the Metropolitan country.

3. The settlement of the disputes between Great Britain and the American colonies.

In support of these propositions, a variety of statements were made, in order to prove it to be the interest of Spain, France and Portugal, to prevent the independence of the United States. To Spain, in particular, it was said, that the United States, if independent, would force a contraband trade with South America, or make war to obtain the precious metals with which the Spanish colonies abounded; that they would take possession of New Zealand, or some of the other islands in the South Sea, enter into alliances with the natives, who were watermen, and forming strong establishments there, would ravage Chili, Peru, and the whole coast of the Pacific. That a right understanding, and the prudent arrangement of commerce would reciprocally promote the trade of each of the confederates; that England produced iron, and in the same fields coals to manufacture it; coarse wool, together with other staples, which she would send to Spain and France, receiving in exchange wine, oil, fruit and fine cloths. Portugal might receive a satisfactory compensation for the relinquishment of her right to supply England with wines on reduced duties. The colonial commerce might be placed under regulations, and distributed in a manner that would be advantageous to all parties.

In respect to the American disputes, that England had her magna charta, and would give one to America; and to cut this business short, and to save all embarrassment, that it was proposed to give a carte blanche to Dr. Franklin, who was one of the greatest geniuses of the age. Sir John said he was unauthorized in making this communication; that lord Rochford, though retired from office, was sanguine respecting this project; that it had been communicated to but few persons, one of whom, the late Spanish ambassador, in England, was delighted with it.

Sir John concluded by saying, that he was intimate with the English ministers, some of whom approved of the project. They were acquainted with his intention to communicate the same to the Spanish ministers, and that he was desirous to learn their way of thinking concerning it.

It does not appear that this project of the English ministry produced a favourable impression on the ministry of Spain. Count Florida Blanca spoke lightly of it, and renewed the assurance of the friendly disposition of his Catholic Majesty towards the Americans. It could not, however, be misunderstood, notwithstanding the urgent representations of France, that Spain was in the beginning disinclined to be drawn into the war with England, and even after she became involved in the war, that she hesitated, and felt anxious concerning the independence of the United States.

Both France and Spain saw, without concern, England embarrassed and weakened by her disputes with these colonies: but neither of them was solicitous to see the United States in possession of territorial or commercial importance—and both were opposed to the extension of their western boundaries, as well as to the establishment of their right in the fisheries and the navigation of the ocean. Each possessed rich and weak colonies in our neighbourhood; and looking into the future, very naturally preferred a policy that would, as they supposed, be least dangerous to this territory.

Amidst the difficulties at home and abroad, with which they were encompassed, our early statesmen manifested, and have left us the most satisfactory evidence of their enlarged and noble views respecting the future destinies of their country: their plans were the conceptions of great men; and considering the little intercourse between the colonies, and the jealousies that were assiduously disseminated among them, the firmness and unanimity with which they pursued their purpose, are deserving of the highest admiration and applause.

But the disastrous progress of the war in the south, joined to the very great embarrassment and distress that were brought upon the whole country, by the depreciation of the paper money, appear in some degree to have shaken the constancy of Congress, which body, in February, 1781, with the view of conciliating, and bringing about a treaty with Spain, *on the motion*

* This sum, with interest, has been repaid to Spain.

of the delegates from Virginia, instructed Mr. Jay to withdraw the demand that Spain should yield to us the free navigation of the Mississippi, and in lieu thereof to offer to his Catholic Majesty the exclusive navigation of that river, and in the same temper, in the following June, the delegates of the same state proposed in the settlement of boundaries, that the river Ohio should be the northwest boundary of the United States; and it is somewhat remarkable, that this proposal to restrict the boundaries of the United States in this important quarter, failed by the opposition to it of the New England states, which voted against the same.

In pursuance of this new instruction, but not before he had received from the count Florida Blanca an intimation of his expectation of a note from him to this effect, Mr. Jay prepared and delivered to the count a note, containing certain propositions, that were to serve as the basis of a treaty of alliance between the United States and Spain; among which was an article stipulating that the United States would relinquish to his Catholic Majesty, and wholly cease from the use of the navigation of the Mississippi, from the point where it leaves the United States, down the same to the ocean; and Spain agreeing to guaranty the territory of the United States, that they would agree to guaranty all the territories of Spain in America—although uninstructed so to do. In making this communication, Mr. Jay stated that these propositions being offered by the United States at a period of embarrassment and distress, were to be considered as of no validity, unless a treaty founded upon the same should be made and concluded between Spain and the United States, before the conclusion of a treaty between them and Great Britain; a precaution which disappointed the views of Spain, and merited, as it afterwards received, the approbation of Congress. As early as September, 1779, Mr. Adams was appointed by Congress to treat of peace and commerce with *England.* In June, 1781, Messrs. Franklin, Jay, Laurens and Jefferson, were added to the commission to treat with England. In September following, Mr. Jay received information of this appointment, together with a copy of the instructions given to the commissioners. In a letter of this date, written by Mr. Jay to Congress, he acknowledged the receipt of the despatch that informed him of his new appointment, and lamented in a feeling manner, that according to the tenor of the instructions given to the commissioners appointed to treat with England, they were subjected to the control of the French minister, count de Vergennes; that they were free to insist on nothing, except the independence of the United States, and their alliance with France; being, touching boundaries, the fisheries, and every other matter, required to consult the minister of France, whose opinions were to govern the American commissioners, who should speak only as he should give them utterance. Mr. Jay concluded his letter by adding, as nothing in the way of negotiation appeared likely to be done soon, that feeling himself humiliated by instructions, which placed him under the control of a foreign government, he prayed that Congress would excuse him from this service, and appoint some other person in his place. Towards the end of this year the affairs of the United States became prosperous; the capture of the army of Cornwallis changed the face of things in the southern states. The English parliament in February following, resolved no longer to prosecute an offensive war in America; still Spain not only held back in the negotiation with the United States, and in affording pecuniary assistance to them, but she also persisted in refusing publicly to receive Mr. Jay as their minister.

Dr. Franklin having obtained further loans from France, authorized Mr. Jay to draw on those funds to enable him to take up and pay the bills drawn upon him, and which had been protested; this was accordingly done, and as no further progress could be made in the negotiation with Spain, Mr. Jay having been informed by Dr. Franklin that the negotiation with England was about to be opened at Paris, where his assistance would be required, he gave notice thereof to the Spanish minister, and leaving Mr. Carmichael charged with the affairs of the United States, took his leave of Madrid, and proceeded to Paris.

In the summer of 1782, Congress revoked their instruction, by which Mr. Jay was directed to offer to his Catholic Majesty the cession of the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi; in lieu whereof Mr. Jay was ordered to negotiate with Spain on the principles of the first article of the treaty between the United States and France.

Mr. Jay was informed by the Spanish government that their ambassador, the count D'Aranda, at Paris, was instructed to negotiate with him—but preliminary difficulties appear to have prevented any progress in this business; the count informed Mr. Jay by letter that he was authorized to treat with him, but declined, when required to furnish him with a copy of his powers—the count de Vergennes thought the simple letter of the Spanish ambassador sufficient to authorize Mr. Jay to proceed in the negotiation, and gave it as his opinion to Mr. Jay, that the previous direct or implied recognition of the United States was unnecessary; and that the same might be made to depend upon a general peace. Mr. Jay persisted in requiring a copy of the full powers given to the Spanish ambassador, and declined proceeding to treat without them.

M. de Rayneval, the private secretary of the count de Vergennes, delivered to Mr. Jay a paper in support of the Spanish claim to the navigation of the Mississippi, and to the whole of the countries upon the east bank thereof—Mr. Jay still persisted in his refusal to treat with the count D'Aranda, unless he first received a copy of his powers.

On the arrival of Mr. Oswald, the British commissioner, a like difficulty arose in respect to his powers, which merely authorized him to treat with the colonies, naming them, but not with the United States. The count de Vergennes here again urged the American commissioners to proceed in the negotiation, and to leave the point of independence to be provided for by an article of the treaty of peace. He also caused it to be understood, that France could not support the United States in the projected extension of their boundary to the Mississippi,

nor in their claim to navigate that river—and no pains were taken to conceal the opinion of France, that the United States should be wholly excluded from the fisheries.

It is possible that Dr. Franklin was not so deeply impressed as Mr. Jay appears to have been, with the importance of a preliminary recognition of independence, instead of permitting the same to depend upon, and to derive its validity from the treaty of peace. In the latter case it would have dated from the date of the treaty; in the former it would relate back to the date of the declaration, and confirm all the acts done under it in the course of the war. Be this, however, as it may, Mr. Jay was strenuous, and opposed with decision any negotiation with Spain or England, unless on the previous recognition of the independence of the United States. He explicitly urged his opinion on this subject to Mr. Oswald, and in so forcible a manner, that Mr. Oswald yielded to him, and consented to ask new powers of his government.

About this juncture, the count de Vergennes despatched his secretary, M. de Rayneval, to London; the object of this mission was not communicated to the American commissioners, but suspicions were felt that the views of France and Spain, rather than those of the United States, were to be promoted by it. To countervail M. de Rayneval's mission, Mr. Benjamin Vaughan,* a gentleman of talents, perseverance and zeal, who was attached to Mr. Oswald's mission, after being fully apprized of the difficulties which retarded the negotiation between the English and American commissioners, and of the advantages to both countries which might be derived from a treaty founded upon liberal principles, immediately followed M. de Rayneval to London.

If M. de Rayneval was sent to London to prevent the preliminary recognition of American independence, or to bring about the division of the fisheries between England and France, to the exclusion of the United States, and to effect a partition between England and Spain, of the country northwest of the Ohio, and south thereof, and between the Allegheny mountains and the Mississippi, his mission was frustrated by that of Mr. Vaughan; lord Shelburne having given to Mr. Oswald a new commission, by which he was authorized to treat with the United States, and thereby previously acknowledging their independence, with which Mr. Vaughan speedily returned to Paris.

The negotiation was immediately resumed, and the project of a treaty, consisting only of four articles was agreed to by the commissioners, and transmitted by Mr. Oswald to England for approbation.

The introduction declared the basis of the treaty to be peace, friendship, and a complete reciprocity and community of benefits.

ART. I. Recognised and treated with the United States as already independent: relinquished all British claims of dominion over them, and established the boundaries of the United States; eastwardly by the river St. John; northerly along the highlands, dividing the waters falling into the Atlantic from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence to Connecticut river; down the same to the forty-fifth degree of latitude, and along that parallel to the west bank of St. Lawrence river; thence in a straight line to the eastern end of Lake Nipising; thence in a straight line to the source of the river Mississippi, and along the middle thereof to the northern boundary of West Florida; thence eastwardly along the northern boundary of West Florida, and the southern boundary of Georgia to the ocean.

ART. II. Provided for the establishment of perpetual peace between the two countries, and for the evacuation of the posts occupied by the British forces within the United States, leaving all American artillery.

ART. III. Recognised a common right of fishery, in all places to which the parties had resorted before the year 1768, with the right to cure fish on the coasts and shores as formerly, in these respects reciprocating all good offices, and making them common.

ART. IV. Provided that the commerce of the two countries should be carried on to and between all the ports of the parties; that British subjects should possess and enjoy all commercial privileges and advantages, and be subject only to the regulations in this respect of American citizens; and, vice versa, that American citizens should possess and enjoy all commercial privileges and advantages, and be subject only to the regulations, in this respect, of British subjects; excepting the rights reserved by charter, to the commercial companies of England; that each should, moreover, enjoy the rights of the most favoured nation, and that the navigation of the river Mississippi, and of the lakes, should be free and common to both.

This treaty was agreed to by the negotiators on the 27th of September, 1782. On the 23d of October following, the same was returned to Paris, by the private secretary of Lord Shelburne, who brought new instructions to Mr. Oswald, and various objections to the treaty; especially to the extent of boundaries, and to the omission of all provisions respecting the tories. At this period, Mr. Adams, who had just concluded a treaty with Holland, arrived at Paris, and entered fully into, and vigorously supported, the views of Mr. Jay. Mr. Laurens, being released from his imprisonment in the Tower of London, also joined his colleagues at Paris. The negotiation with Mr. Oswald was resumed by the American commissioners, who so far disregarded their instructions, as to carry it on independently of the control of the French ministry. And on the 30th of November, 1782, the provisional articles of peace between the United States and Great Britain were signed; to take effect as soon as a treaty of peace between France and Great Britain should be concluded.

Preliminaries of peace between France and Great Britain were signed on the 20th of January, 1783, and definitive treaties, between Great

* This excellent man, having with his amiable family removed to this country, has resided for many years on the banks of the Kennebec, in the District of Maine, where, by the practice of those virtues which afford the best consolation of the heart, he has greatly endeared himself to his friends and neighbours.

Britain and France, and between Great Britain and the United States, were signed on the 3d of September, 1783. [*N. Y. American.*

CHRISTIANITY IN THE SOUTH SEAS.

The progress of religion in the newly christianized islands appears to be very satisfactory. At Otaheite reading has become very general, and the natives are diligently engaged in teaching one another. Three thousand copies of St. Luke's Gospel have been printed, and sold for three gallons of cocoa nut oil each copy. Many thousands were greatly disappointed that there were no more for sale; a defect which it is expected will be shortly remedied. Private prayer is supposed to be almost universal, and the instances of real piety numerous. Some peculiar difficulties have, however, arisen out of this new state of things. Not only the social habits and customs of the islanders, but their civil regulations, had been intimately blended with their superstitious rites: when, therefore, idolatry was renounced, and Christianity established in its room, their political and social systems suffered a total derangement. This change affected, more or less, every custom and usage, and extended to almost every affair of life. The missionaries thus found themselves placed in circumstances of peculiar difficulty. They had considered it to be their duty to abstain from interfering in the political and civil concerns of the islands; but now they are applied to, from all quarters, for counsel and direction, not only in moral and religious but in political and civil affairs. Desirous of pursuing their former line of conduct, they had informed the king and the chiefs, that, as their object in residing among them was only to convey to them the knowledge of *the true God, and Jesus Christ whom he hath sent*, they must still decline all direct interposition in their political affairs; but would, at all times, be glad to give them the best advice in their power. A correspondence had accordingly been entered into between the brethren and Pomare, in which they had recommended him to call a general meeting of the principal chiefs; and, with their assistance and concurrence, to adopt such laws as might be adapted to the new state of things, impart stability to his government, and promote the general welfare. On presenting this recommendation, they engaged to furnish such counsel on the several points which should call for their attention, as their acquaintance with the scriptures, and the laws of Britain and other civilized nations, might enable them to impart. This proposal was by no means agreeable to Pomare; who, having been accustomed to the exercise of arbitrary power, and to be himself at the head of every thing, was unwilling to hazard his authority by a convention of the chiefs. In his answer to the missionaries, he had, however, signified his wish to receive from them whatever information they might be able to give him, on the subject of new laws and regulations; and it appears that his subsequent conduct towards the missionaries had been, in no degree, less friendly since they had ventured to make this unwelcome proposition.

On this last point it is said—

Since the termination of the war, in 1815, which fully restored Pomare to the sovereignty, the attention of the people has been forcibly attracted and variously occupied, by the interesting changes and new avocations which have been consequent on the fall of their idolatry and the subsequent introduction of Christianity: but, when the novelty of these changes has passed away, when the natives shall be generally instructed, when their new customs are become familiar, and their political and civil regulations adapted to the new order of things, a system of regular industry will be absolutely indispensable to the preservation of their religious and moral habits. With this view, the London Missionary Society sent out Mr. John Gyles, in the summer of 1817, on the recommendation of the Rev. Samuel Marsden. Mr. Gyles is to devote himself to the instruction of the natives in the cultivation of the sugar cane, and other indigenous plants of the islands, with the cotton and coffee trees. [*Ch. Obs.*

From the Boston Gazette.

PREMIUMS FOR WORKMANSHIP.

Agreeably to custom, that useful and popular institution, the Massachusetts Charitable Mechanic Association, availed themselves of this anniversary, to distribute the *Medals* and *Premiums* offered by them for exhibitions of superior workmanship and genius. We think the occasion happily solicited, as the mechanic arts are one of the first sources of the independence of a nation, and are free from any of the objections which are made to the undue increase of manufactures.

The government judges of premiums, and marshals, having breakfasted with their president, proceeded at an early hour to the Washington Gardens, where the examination of the articles presented was finished, and the awards made. The president then announced, that judges had awarded the medal of the value of twelve dollars to Messrs. Fearing and Emerson, harness makers of this town, for the best specimen of an entire chaise harness, silver plated, and entirely of American workmanship. The

second premium of six dollars was also awarded to these gentlemen.

That a medal of the value of twelve dollars was awarded to Mr. Thomas Burdle, of Boston, for the best made six pannelled door; and that the premium of six dollars was awarded to Mr. Henry Chulbrick, for the next best.

That a medal of the value of twelve dollars was awarded to Mr. Addison Bacon, Hanover street, for the best made pair of chaise wheels; and that a premium of six dollars was awarded to Mr. Oliver Ames, of Norton, for the next best.

That a medal of the value of eight dollars was awarded to William Jordan, (an apprentice of Mr. Daniel Adams) for the best made ship-block, with two sheaves; and that the premium of four dollars was awarded to John B. Ingolls, (an apprentice of Messrs. Dupee and Badger) for the next best.

That a medal of the value of six dollars was awarded to Peter Athern, of Boston, (an apprentice of Mr. David Peeler) for the best made pair of half boots; and the premium of three dollars to Samuel B. Pope, (an apprentice of his father in Quincy) for the second best made pair.

John J. Bickner (an apprentice, of Attleborough,) presented a barrel, for which no premiums have been offered this year; and the government, in consequence of the expense he had incurred by the mistake, directed the treasurer to present him with the sum of seven dollars and seventy-five cents. The medals and premiums were now delivered.

The articles exhibited were mostly of excellent workmanship; and it was only regretted that the specimens were not more numerous, and which we trust they will be, should the premiums be repeated.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

Wilmington, March 20, 1820.

Dear Sir—In consequence of your notice (of my mud burning) in the Agricultural Almanac, I have had repeated applications for information, and a friend of Mr. Rodney's, from the south, having been the first to apply, I have addressed to Mr. Rodney a letter explanatory of my mode and its effects as near as possible, a copy of which is enclosed. I am, very respectfully, your friend, JOHN WARNER.

James M. Broome, esq.

ON BURNING OF MUD OR CLAY.

Read 18th April, 1820.

Wilmington, Feb. 1st, 1820.

Dear Sir—In compliance with your request, I communicate, for the information of your friend, the following remarks in relation to the experiments made by me in clay or mud burning.

I commenced mud burning in 1815. During that year I burned about one hundred and seventy cart loads, and about one hundred bushels of oyster shells, in a single heap. The mud was principally blue mud, obtained from the clearing of drains or ditches, being thrown out in the spring upon the edge of the drain, where it remained until harvest, when it had become generally dry throughout. I began the fire or kiln with about one-third of an oak rail, which being completely on fire, I applied to it the lightest and dryest mud or tussocks that I could procure. The fire should be kept well covered, and if it burn rapidly and the flame or smoke penetrate through any aperture, it should be covered with fine earth, which confines the heat and causes the mud to burn inwardly. Around and adjoining the first heap, when you are satisfied that it is completely on fire, you should commence three or four other fires, similar to the first, with which they will very soon become connected; and thus you may proceed with small fires around the original heap and on the surface of the ground, until you have disposed of all the mud you intend to burn. This method may be recommended for two reasons:—first, it increases the body of fire below, and thereby prevents the danger of extinguishment, and secondly, it keeps the top of the heap within your reach, which it is necessary to keep pretty heavily dressed. To ascertain how the heap is burning, I carry with me a strong stick or cane, which I run into the heap, and thereby discover the distance from the outside to the ashes; and as it generally happens that one side of the heap burns much more rapidly than the other, it is necessary to dress that side the heaviest. I use no flues to give air, being satisfied that the mud burns much better when the air is excluded.

In the year 1816, I burned six or seven hundred cart loads. A part of this was done in small heaps, on a piece of high marsh overrun with elders: the marsh was plough-

ed about four inches deep, and the surface burned and spread over the same ground. From this experiment I derived little or no benefit, and I am therefore induced to believe that paring and burning are injurious, even where the whole quantity of ashes is spread over the same ground.

During last season, I burned altogether in small heaps of from three to eight cart loads each, which saved the expense of cartage. I prefer this mode for another reason; the process is much more expeditious when the burning is done in small heaps, than in large; in the first case the manure is ready in two or three weeks, in the latter it requires two or three months.

About two bushels of oyster or marine shells may be beneficially burned with each cart load of mud. When this is done, the mud must be in large heaps. After the heap is well on fire, give a very light dressing of shells over the surface of the heap, so as to permit the fire to communicate from below the shells to the dressing of mud above them.

It is proper to state, that wood is only necessary at the commencement of the operation, which requires great care and judgment. When it is once on fire thoroughly, the mud will prove sufficiently combustible to keep the fire alive.

The proper season for burning may be assigned from the first of May until the middle of September, taking care to select a dry time to commence with the heap; after it is fairly in operation, I conceive some rain to be beneficial, as it has a tendency to confine the heat.

Marsh mud of any kind is excellent for burning, and with it every kind of shrubs or roots which are commonly found in a marsh, such as tussocks, elders, &c.; also any species of earth taken from swamps or meadow ground, that is free from sand. Clay of every description makes a strong fire when once commenced. Although I have never tried this species of earth myself, yet in travelling last summer about fifteen miles from this place, I saw a heap containing about one hundred loads of handsome ashes burned from stiff blue clay. This was burned upon Cobbett's plan; and in the same field there were also many small heaps burned upon the plan I have laid down. The owner of the farm was not acquainted with the method of increasing the heaps, which I explained to him, and he expressed his intention of adopting that plan, in order to save fuel, and the expense of building clay walls according to the English practice.

I consider the ashes procured in this way a cheap and valuable manure. The reduction in quantity is about one-third, and I have ascertained in one instance the expense to be about twelve cents a common cart load, allowing the hands employed one dollar a day each, and three dollars a day for two carts and a driver. My crops of wheat from this method of manuring, have been equal if not superior to those dressed with stable or barn yard manure. There should be from forty to fifty cart loads of ashes per acre. I have made an experiment of top dressing meadow ground: the effect it produced was, that the cattle turned into that meadow to graze, would eat the grass of the part manured in this way perfectly bare, before they would touch any other part of the pasture. I have this season about nine acres of wheat manured with mud ashes that promise well. In an adjoining farm, a fair experiment is now making by Mr. John Woolston, who has manured with burned mud about three acres of land, and an equal quantity with stable manure: the remainder of the field is manured with lime, fifty bushels to the acre. There is but little difference visible in the parcels on which the burned mud and stable manure have been put, but their superiority over that which has been limed is very apparent.

Very respectfully your friend,

JOHN WARNER.

C. A. Rodney, esq.

Poetry.

From "Foliage," a collection of poems by Leigh Hunt.

SONG.

Written to be set to music by Vincent Novello.

WHEN lovely sounds about my ears
Like winds in Eden's tree-tops rise,
And make me, though my spirit hears,
For very luxury close my eyes,
Let none but friends be round about
Who love the soothing joy like me,
That so the charm be felt throughout,
And all be harmony.

And when we reach the close divine,
Then let the hand of her I love
Come with its gentle palm on mine
As soft as snow or lighting dove;
And let, by stealth, that more than friend,
Look sweetness in my opening eyes,
For only so such dreams should end,
Or wake in Paradise.

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Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

Nantz, 31st December, 1819.

Sir—The recollection of your attention in showing me your cow establishment at Germantown, has suggested the idea of forwarding to you the process they have in Upper Brittany to make butter, which is a little different from the American mode. Should it be of any service to you, I shall feel much gratified, and my fears for intruding upon your useful occupations will soon vanish.

I have lately noticed in one of our publications, that chesnut wood has been found to be an excellent substitute for logwood and oak bark for dying and tanning, and its affinity to wool is said to be greater than that of either gall or sumac. Should the American manufacturers resume operations, for which the present state of the country seems so favourable, it would be worth while to try the experiment.

A very ingenious, cheap and simple machine has lately been invented here, called the Steam Hydraulic Engine, for the purpose of raising water; its advantageous properties lie, in raising four cubic feet of water 65 feet high in one minute, with a very small quantity of coal; 2dly, of being so light (not exceeding 110 pounds weight, boiler and furnace included) as to be easy to move about to be applied to draining of lands, &c. If I can get at more information as to its mechanism, I will communicate it to you. I am respectfully, sir, your very humble servant, FRANCIS DA COSTA.

Reuben Haines, esq.

MODE OF MAKING BUTTER,

As it is practised in the neighbourhood of Rennes in Brittany, where the best Butter in France is made.

Milk is composed of three parts, essentially different from each other; they are as follow:

1st. The aqueous part, called whey, which is very acid.

2d. The cheese part, which is substantial.

3d. The butter part, called cream, of an oily nature, and which comes up naturally to the surface of the milk even before its decomposition.

It is this cream that is turned out into butter by churning.

In order to make good butter, the decomposition of milk must have begun; I mean its three parts must be exactly separated, as it happens when it begins to turn sour. Milk must necessarily be sour before beginning to churn; but it is urgent to churn it as soon as it is sour, and not to wait its fermentation.

It must have curdled and soured of itself without fire. In the winter season, however, it is proper to pour a little sour milk into it to make it coagulate.

Though the cream is the elementary part of butter, and neither the whey nor the cheese part contain any of it, yet it is necessary to throw into the churn the three parts of the milk, and to churn them all together. The reason of it is evident. The churning, which must be always uniform and continual, communicates a slight degree of heat, which would give a disagreeable taste to the butter, if the cream were churned alone; while churning the whole together, the acidity of the whey tempers the heating effects of the churning, the cheese part helps the separation, and the

butter comes fresh out of the churn. It is to preserve that fresh taste, that in summer our butter women, as soon as they perceive the small globules of butter beginning to form, do not fail to throw into the churn (by the hole of the churn-staff, and without stopping the churning) some pints of spring water every ten minutes, that is, a pint to every fifty or sixty pints of milk: in winter, on the contrary, they add warm water, but they pour it in as soon as they begin to churn, in order to accelerate the slight degree of heat necessary for the formation of butter; but when they perceive the first butter globules forming round the churn-staff, then they cease pouring warm water, and the temperature warns them putting any more cool water. Thus, to make butter, it is required—

1st. That milk must have curdled and soured, but not fermented.

2d. That milk must have naturally soured, without any help but a little quantity of sour milk, and especially without warming it.

3d. That all the milk should be put into the churn together, and churned without extracting any parts of it.

4th. That the churning should be continual and always uniform, avoiding to strike the bottom of the churn.

5th. That churning, without interruption, communicates to the milk a slight degree of heat, which is necessary, and which in winter may be accelerated, by adding some warm water from the moment one begins to churn, and without stopping the churning motion.

6th. As soon as one perceives the little globules of butter forming, one must then think only to cool, with spring water, if in summer, for in winter it is not necessary.

7th. If, when one wishes to churn, one has some sweet milk not yet sour, but which one wishes to churn, it must be put into the churn with the curdled milk twelve or fifteen hours, more or less according to the relative quantity, before beginning to churn, in order that the part of sweet milk you have added be entirely curdled.

8th. This mode is, no doubt, much longer than when the cream alone is churned; for one must churn during about two hours in the most favourable season, and it is common in winter to take four hours churning to have your butter made.

Preparation of Butter.

When butter is made, if the weather is hot, it is well after having gathered it in the churn, to let it cool about two hours; but when it is very hot weather, as that time is not sufficient to cool it, it is well to put it in a very cool place during some hours, till it is very firm, in order to extract the buttermilk out of it.

It is by kneading and turning repeatedly with a wooden box spoon, in a beech dish made of one piece, that the women about Rennes extract the buttermilk; leaving it now and then to rest and grow hard, and then beginning again till it does not yield any buttermilk: it is only in the last extremity, and in the hot days of summer, that they knead it in cool water in order to extract the buttermilk out of it: they put nothing in it, but some salt for preserving and relishing it.

They never touch the butter but with the wooden box spoon, which must be impregnated, and also the dish, with some light brine, to prevent the butter from adhering.

All the utensils employed for milk must be carefully washed with boiling water every time they have been made use of, then washed again with cold water, and exposed to the sun, that they do not get a musty swell. It is necessary to remove from the dairy all the disagreeable or strong smells, and to observe the most scrupulous cleanliness in it, but without humidity, which would give a mouldy taste to milk.

The churn is made of chesnut wood; it is scalded every time it is emptied to churn again; it is rubbed with a bunch of holly-oak, that scratches and cleans it well, and then washed again with cold water.

The pots and churn must keep no smell of the sour milk, and none of the utensils employed should be or have been put to any other uses, for fear of spoiling the whole.

Buttermilk.

I desire the proprietor this instruction is destined for, to taste the milk remaining in the churn after butter shall have been taken out of it, the first time he shall try our method. It is indeed a very agreeable and cooling drink, which physicians believe very wholesome and nourishing. It is an essential part of the nourishment of our country people, who make at least a meal of it every day. They take it without warming it, and put usually into it some broad thin buckwheat cakes, or, according to the season, peas, beans, chesnuts or potatoes, boiled in water. The great strength and vigorous health of these country people is attributed to the use of this nourishing beverage.

In order to keep this buttermilk many

days, one must extract its whey, that is sour; the means are as follow:

In the lower extremity of the churn level to the bottom, an opening must be made, that is shut by a peg of about three or eight lines in diameter; after the butter is taken out of the churn, one leaves it to settle some time to let the whey have time to separate from the curd; then one takes out the peg, and makes all the whey run out into a basin, taking care to put the peg in as soon as the curd comes out. This whey is given to the hogs. If all the whey is not out of the churn, and the curd has a sour taste, one throws some pints of cool water in the churn, takes out the peg, and the water runs out, carrying with it the remaining whey. This milk may remain in the churn many days without any inconvenience; it may be given to hogs, to horses, and even to calves, mixed with a little sweet milk.

The butter made according to the abovementioned process is of an excellent quality, and superior to the best *Wonderly's butter*, in the spring, found in the Philadelphia market. I have been told when in England, that in some counties, as well as in some counties in the south of Ireland, the mode of churning the cream and milk of one milking all together was in general use. FRANCIS DA COSTA.

Reuben Haines.

MAKING CIDER.

Directions for making sweet, clear Cider, that shall retain its fine vinous flavour, and keep good for a long time in casks, like wine.

It is of importance in making cider, that the mill, the press, and all the materials be sweet and clean, and the straw clear from must. To make good cider, fruit should be ripe (but not rotten), and when the apples are ground, if the juice is left in the pummice twenty-four hours, the cider will be richer, softer, and higher coloured; if fruit is all of the same kind, it is generally thought that the cider will be better; as the fermentation will certainly be more regular, which is of importance. The gathering and grinding of the apples, the pressing out of the juice, is a mere manual labour, performed with very little skill in the operation; but here the great art of making good cider commences; for as soon as the juice is pressed out, nature begins to work a wonderful change in it. The juice of fruit, if left to itself, will undergo three distinct fermentations, all of which change the quality and nature of this fluid. The first is the vinous; the second the acid, which makes it hard and prepares it for vinegar; by the third it becomes putrid. The first fermentation is the only one the juice of apples should undergo, to make good cider. It is this operation that separates the juice from the filth, and leaves it a clear, sweet, vinous liquor. To preserve it in this state is the grand secret; this is done by fumigating it with sulphur, which checks any further fermentation, and preserves it in its fine vinous state. It is to be wished that all cider makers would make a trial of this method; it is attended with no expense, and but little trouble, and will have the desired effect.

I would recommend that the juice as it comes from the press, be placed in open headed casks or vats: in this situation it is most likely to undergo a proper fermentation, and the person attending may with correctness ascertain when this fermentation ceases; this is of great importance, and must be particularly attended to. The fermentation is attended with a hissing noise, bubbles rising to the surface and there forming a soft spongy crust over the liquor. When this crust begins to crack, and white froth appears in the cracks level with the surface of the head, the fermentation is about stopping. At this time the liquor is in a fine, genuine, clear state, and must be drawn off immediately into clean casks; and this is the time to fumigate it with sulphur. To do this, take a strip of canvas or rag, about two inches broad and twelve long, dip this into melted sulphur, and when a few pails of worked cider are put into the cask, set this match on fire and hold it in the cask, till it is consumed, then bung the cask and shake it, that the liquor may incorporate with and retain the fumes; after this fill the cask and bung it up. The cider should be racked off again the latter part of February or 1st of March; and if not as clear as you wish it, put in isinglass to fine it, and stir it well; then put the cask in a cool place, where it will not be disturbed, for the fining to settle. Cider prepared in this manner will keep sweet for years.

It is certainly of great importance to the people of America to cultivate the fruit that is natural to the soil of their country, and to make the most of the fruit which the soil produces; especially, when its produce is an article of value and of great consumption in this country.

A LOVER OF GOOD CIDER.

Am. D. Adv.]

Biography.

REV. DR. ISAAC MILNER.

A late English periodical publication contains a biographical sketch of the late Rev. Dr. Isaac Milner, which displays such an extraordinary instance of genius rising superior to the obstacles of humble birth and poverty, that we think an abstract from the article cannot but be acceptable to our readers.

—

Isaac Milner was born near Leeds, January 11th, 1751, of parents who could boast neither rank nor property. While he was yet a boy, his father, who was a weaver, died; leaving two sons, Joseph and Isaac, and their aged and infirm mother. It was now necessary that redoubled industry should be exerted by the remaining branches of the family to enable them to live; and the two young Milners were constantly at their spinning wheels by daybreak in the summer, and long before it in the winter, to pursue their labour. By this course of persevering diligence, they were enabled for a long time to maintain, with credit, themselves and their aged parent.

The young men were soon observed to be less addicted than others to the country sports among their village neighbours, and to employ their vacant time in studying what few books were lent them by their friends. This singularity soon brought them into notice among their neighbours. With industry and the love of study, they united the strictest sobriety; so that it was predicted of them that they would one day make a figure in life.

Their fame at length began to spread through Leeds; and a subscription was set on foot to raise money for the purpose of sending Joseph, the eldest, and who was considered the most promising in point of talents, to college. He was accordingly sent to the grammar school at Leeds; and the lesson he learned there by day, when he returned home at night, he taught his brother Isaac, who discovered not only an aptitude for this novel mode of studying the classics, but also great quickness of parts, memory, and judgment. Thus passed three years, in which it may be supposed that Isaac had gained a tolerable degree of acquaintance with the Greek and Latin languages.

Joseph was now sent to college, and Isaac, of course, was deprived of his instructor. He however found means to pursue his studies with such industry and success, that at nineteen he might be styled a good classic. Some time prior to this, he had been bound apprentice to a weaver. While he was employed in that occupation, his brother had finished his studies at Cambridge with considerable reputation; soon after which he was ordained, and removing to Hull, held the curacy of Trinity church, and became master of the free grammar school at that place. By his exertions, a great reformation was produced in the school, and many improvements introduced in the modes of instruction.

Isaac thought this a good opportunity to emancipate himself from a mechanical trade no way congenial to his disposition, and therefore wrote to his brother the progress he had made in literature, and requested to become an assistant to him in the school, for teaching the lower classes. Joseph, though desirous of gratifying his brother, thought it necessary to proceed with caution; he therefore requested the Rev. Mr. Atkinson to call upon Isaac and examine him, and, if he found him qualified, to send him to Hull. In conformity with this request, the clergyman waited upon Isaac, then nineteen years of age, whom he found at the loom, with Tacitus by his side. After undergoing an examination of some length, in the course of which he displayed great accuracy, and much general knowledge, and an astonishing command of language, he was thought perfectly qualified to be sent to Hull; and accordingly, in a few days after, he bade a final adieu to the occupation of weaving.

Joseph, about this time, had become a zealous, bold and animated preacher, and a warm and faithful supporter of the peculiar doctrines of Christianity; and the fruits of his labours were strikingly evident among his people. With such an example before him, Isaac could not fail to imbibe sentiments of veneration for the Christian religion; and it was natural that he should entertain similar views of its doctrines with those of his brother. His thoughts were turned towards the church; and after having assisted his brother for some time in the capacity of an usher, in the year 1770 he was removed to Queen's College, Cambridge.

Few persons ever went better prepared to the university, or with talents more likely to make a conspicuous figure. Besides the natural assiduity and abilities, he had the advantage of being educated by a person who had gone through the university before him, and that person also a brother; who must have been therefore a more sedulous instructor than any other.

Whilst an under graduate, he was inde-

fatigable in his studies. He was confident in his abilities, and fixed his eye upon the first honours of the place; and perseverance and ability insured their attainment. In the year 1774 he became *senior wrangler*, with the honourable title of *incomparabilis*. In 1782 he served the office of proctor, and in 1792 that of vice chancellor.

At Cambridge Mr. Milner became acquainted with Mr. Wilberforce; and soon after the commencement of the acquaintance, these gentlemen, in company with Mr. Pitt, went on a continental tour, but had not proceeded far, before some political changes in Great Britain called them back. A friendship however was formed, which lasted through Mr. Milner's life.

Soon after Mr. Milner's return from the continent, which was in 1788, he was chosen president of the college to which, as a student, he had done so much credit. Under his direction many improvements took place in the institution, and its reputation was very much advanced. Soon afterwards he was made doctor of divinity, and was presented with the deanery of Carlisle. It was his practice to spend a part of every year at Hull during his brother's life; when he used to relax his mind, and exercise his body by mechanical employment or manual labour.

Dr. Milner was distinguished for his attainments in mathematics and chemistry; and on the death of Dr. Waring, he was made Lucasian Professor of Mathematics. Thus, with no other advantages but those of ability and merit, he rose from the obscurest ranks of like, to the chair which was once filled by the great sir Isaac Newton, and which he filled with credit to himself and honour to the university.

Whilst president of Queen's College, Dr. Milner was the intimate friend of the Rev. Charles Simeon, of King's College; and it is mentioned to their honour, that they were the instruments of introducing into the Church of England a greater number of learned, industrious, and useful clergymen than any other two individuals in Great Britain. These gentlemen were stigmatized by many persons for their religious tenets, which were of the description which is called in the established church in that country evangelical; but their exemplary lives bore down all opposition, while they demonstrated that piety is not the enemy of learning, but that both conduce to the formation of the real Christian minister. By their joint efforts, an Auxiliary Bible Society was formed, against much opposition, at Cambridge.

Dr. Milner was never ashamed of his humble origin, or his lowly occupation; but throughout life, when he visited Leeds, which he usually did in his journey to the north, "he never failed to call upon the obscure friends of his boyish days, and by his well timed acts of generosity among them," he delivered the poor and the fatherless, and caused many a widow's heart to sing for joy. Isaac Milner, the fatherless weaver, and Dr. Milner, the Lucasian professor, did not appear in their eyes as two different men; they were both appropriately personified under one character. In his deportment he manifested the same unaffected simplicity of manners and affability of disposition, which were befitting his early station in society, and which equally adorned that to which, by the providence of God, he was subsequently raised.

This great man died, on the first of March, 1820, at the house of his friend, Mr. Wilberforce, in the 70th year of his age. He was in every respect an extraordinary man, a venerable scholar, and an exemplary Christian. In early youth he rose superior to difficulties, with which few would have successfully contended, and his academical career was eminently distinguished. By the splendour of his reputation while in the vigour of life, and by uncommon zeal and activity in the cause of science, he gave a strong impulse to the study of mathematical and philosophical learning in his university. The range of his inquiries was surprisingly extensive:—abstract science; philosophy, theoretical and experimental; ancient literature; history; theology; by turns occupied his attention.

With regard to the intellectual faculties of this great man, he was most remarkable for the strength of his understanding; his mind seemed capable of grasping whatever was fairly within the sphere of human knowledge.

To this very important notice of the life and character of Dr. Milner, we shall only add, that the remembrance of his friendly disposition and many virtues, as well as the never failing delight which his conversation afforded, can cease only with the existence of those who knew him living and lament him dead. [*N. Y. Daily Adv.*

Geography.

TRISTAN D'ACUNHA, &c.

Jonathan Lambert, late Sovereign thereof.

Midway, in the southern Atlantic, between the Cape of Good Hope and the Brazil coast,

are situated a small group of three islands, named *Tristan d'Acunha*, after the Portuguese admiral who first discovered them. Nothing can be more wild and dismal than the aspect of these islands; and in stormy weather, which is common in the winter season, a tremendous sea rears and foams against the rocky shores. The names given to the three islands are, *Tristan d'Acunha*, *Inaccessible*, and *Nightingale*, islands; the two latter of which are so wild and rugged as to defy all approach. [*N. Y. American.*

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Tristan d'Acunha is about seven leagues in circumference, of a square shape, formed by hilly ridges with deep vallies, and appears to have originated from a volcanic eruption. The only level ground of consequence is on the northeast side, at the foot of a mountain rising upwards of 8000 perpendicular feet from the flat, in extent about five miles; the principal part of which may be cultivated easily, having been cleared of the brushwood by fires, and left in a state to receive the plough or spade.

The island looks to be inaccessible on the other parts. Probably, in moderate weather, and a smooth sea, boats may land: but the only road across would be over the mountains; to walk round is impossible, the sea beating in many places against the perpendicular cliffs.

Stone for building is to be had; but none of the kind that lime is produced from could be seen. A very good sort of reed for thatching grows in abundance.

The common tree of the island appears a species of gum tree, very sappy, and only of use for firewood and common purposes.

The island is well supplied with water. Three falls run near the habitable part; one convenient for ships, who may fill casks in their boat with a hose.

The seasons are described as being irregular; the climate very good, and particularly healthy. The spring commences the latter end of September, and the winter in April, which is mild, never too cold to hurt the vegetation. Snow is seen on the mountains from April to September. Prevailing winds, from southeast to west northwest; seldom more to the eastward; but when from that quarter, it blows with its greatest strength.

It rains moderately throughout the year, and never at any time to hurt the ground. Ice has never been seen; thunder seldom heard.

When Bonaparte was sent to St. Helena, it was deemed expedient to examine these islands, and, if necessary, to take possession of them. The Falmouth frigate was despatched for this purpose, and arrived there in August, 1816. Two men were found living on the island, who, it appeared, had been on this desolate spot for some years, and who were both overjoyed in placing themselves under the protection of the British flag. One of these men, of the name of Thomas Currie, gave the following account of his coming to the island:

"My first coming to the island was in an American ship called the Baltic, captain Lovel, belonging to Boston. We arrived from Rio de Janeiro on the 27th December, 1810. I came under an agreement to remain one year, and to have a passage found me to the Cape of Good Hope, in case I should not wish to remain on the island. My agreement was 12 Spanish dollars per month, besides the one-third of 20 per cent. on all produce during the time I might remain.

"The man I agreed with was not captain Lovel, but Jonathan Lambert, an American, who intended to make a settlement on the island. He remained on it till the 17th of May, 1812, when he and two other Americans, under pretence of fishing and collecting wreck, took the boat and left the island. I have never heard of them since; but I must not omit mentioning, that the said Jonathan Lambert took possession of the three islands of Tristan d'Acunha in a formal manner."

Thomas Currie has fifteen or twenty acres of ground cultivated, sown with vegetables, which were thriving very well, and three huts thatched with reed.

The other person on the island, (a lad whom he called his apprentice,) came from an English ship, having agreed to serve two years for wages; is a native of Minorca.

The stock on the island belonging to Thomas Currie, consisted of forty breeding sows, and two boars, of the wild breed; no fowls or ducks left; the last taken away by the American privateers.

He stated that, in the mountains there were many wild pigs and goats.

The following is the document left by Jonathan Lambert on the island, by which he constituted himself sole monarch of this group of islands:

Know all men by these presents, that I, Jonathan Lambert, late of Salem, in the state of Massachusetts, United States of America, and citizen thereof, have this 4th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1811, taken absolute possession of the island of Tristan d'Acunha, so called, viz. the great island, and the other two, known by the names of Inaccessible and Nightingale islands, solely for myself and my

heirs for ever, with the right of conveying the whole or any part thereof, to one or more persons, by deed of sale, free gift, or otherwise, as I, or they (my heirs), may hereafter think fitting or proper.

"And as no European, or other power whatever, has hitherto publicly claimed the said islands, by right of discovery, or act of possession: Therefore, be it known to all nations, tongues, and languages, that from and ever after the date of this public instrument, I constitute my individual self the sole proprietor of the abovementioned islands, grounding my right and claim on the rational and sure principle of absolute occupancy; and, as such, holding and possessing all the rights, titles, and immunities properly belonging to proprietors by the usage of nations.

"In consequence of this right and title by me thus assumed and established, I do further declare, that the said islands shall, for the future, be denominated the Islands of Refreshment, the great island bearing the name in particular; and the landing place on the north side, a little east of the cascade, to be called Reception, and which shall be the place of my residence. The isle formerly called Inaccessible, shall henceforth be called Printard Island; and that known by the name of Nightingale Isle, shall now be called Lovel Island.

"And I do further declare, that the cause of the said act, set forth in this instrument, originated in the desire and determination of preparing for myself and family a house where I can enjoy life, without the embarrassments which have hitherto constantly attended me, and procure for us an interest and property, by means of which a competence may be ever secured, and remain, if possible, far removed beyond the reach of chicanery and ordinary misfortunes.

"For the above purpose, I intend paying the strictest attention to husbandry, presuming, when it is known in the world, that refreshments may be obtained at my residence, all vessels of whatever description, and belonging to whatever nation, will visit me for that purpose, and, by fair and open traffic, supply themselves with those articles of which they may be in need.

"And I do hereby invite all those who may want refreshments, to call at Reception, where, by lying by, opposite the cascade, they will be immediately visited by a boat from the shore, and speedily supplied with such things as the islands may produce, at a reasonable price.

"And be it further known, that by virtue of the aforesaid right and authority abovementioned, I have adopted a flag. The flag is formed of five diamonds, which shall forever be the known and acknowledged flag of these islands.

"And that a white flag shall be known and considered as the common flag for any vessel in the merchant service, which may now, or hereafter, belong to any inhabitants of these islands.

"And, lastly, be it known, that I hold myself and my people, in the course of our traffic and intercourse with any other people, to be bound by the principles of hospitality and good fellowship, and the laws of nations (if any there are), as established by the best writers on that subject, and by no other laws whatever, until they may produce particular contracts or other engagements.

(Signed) "J. LAMBERT.

"Witness to this signature,

(Signed) "ANDREW MILLET."

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

The two following observations of the variation of the compass, were made at the highest latitudes, and at an apparent approximation to the magnetic point, greater than any other of which we have any authentic account, and may lead to further reflection on that important subject. It is recommended to the attention of our readers.

Sir Alexander Mackenzie, on Monday the 13th July, 1789, at the mouth of Mackenzie's river, in latitude 69° 14′, longitude 135° west, observed the variation of the compass to be 36° eastward. Captain Ross on the 13th August, 1818, in his late voyage to Baffin's bay, in latitude 74°, longitude 81° west, observed the variation to be 114° west.

G.

Record.

The Missouri convention met on the 12th of June. David Baxter was elected president. The project of a constitution was reported on the 16th, by committees appointed to draft it. Colonel Alexander M'Nair, a member of the convention, and governor Clark, are candidates for the office of governor, when the constitution shall have been adopted. The following paragraph is from the St. Louis Enquirer.

"The committee appointed to draft a constitution for the state of Missouri, reported on yesterday. The article which will be first inquired after is to the following effect: The legislature shall have no power to manumit slaves, except on condition of paying their full value to their owners; it shall have no power to prevent emigrants from bringing their slaves into this state;

it shall have power to prevent slaves from being brought to Missouri to be sold as merchandise: persons who have been or may be brought into the United States in violation of the laws of Congress for the suppression of the foreign slave trade, shall be free on arriving in the state of Missouri—their posterity likewise: the right of jury trial for offences above the grade of petit larceny is secured to slaves: it is made the duty of the court to assign them counsel, when they have it not; if convicted, to be punished in the same manner that white persons would be for the like offences: homicide and dismemberment of a slave to be punished as if committed upon a white person: and it is made the duty of the legislature to pass laws for the protection of slaves against injuries from their masters. The other parts of the constitution are, in general, deemed liberal and enlightened, and calculated to insure an able government to the state of Missouri. The article on slavery will probably meet with the general support of the convention, and will do honour to the men who, in guarding the right of property, have not lost sight of the rights of humanity."

FROM THE MISSIONARIES.

Mount Zion, Georgia, June 30.

We regret to learn that the Creek nation in council, have refused their permission to the establishment of schools and a missionary station in their country. Their jealousy of the intentions of those who wish to benefit them, is not in this case unnatural, nor was it altogether unexpected. They have heretofore been compelled to make larger cessions of territory than have been made by any other tribe, and from being powerful in point of numbers, they are now reduced to comparative insignificance. A considerable part of the state of Georgia, the whole of the states of Mississippi and Alabama formerly belonged to them, and they fear that the attempt will be made to annex the small portion that yet remains to them, to one of these states.

We are indebted to the politeness of the Rev. Dr. Brown for the following extract of a letter, addressed to him by the Rev. Messrs. Thomas C. Stuart and David Humphreys, missionaries and agents, employed by the Missionary Society of South Carolina and Georgia, to effect the establishment of a missionary station in the Creek nation.

Fort Mitchell, C. N. May 24, 1820.

Rev. and dear Sir—After four days constant attendance upon the Indian council, we have this day received an answer to our proposition. We presented the documents from the secretary of war, with your address; explained the whole plan to them, and endeavoured, with all the ingenuity which we possessed, to convince them of the pure and benevolent intentions, not only of government, but also of the society by whose appointment, and under whose direction we were acting; holding forth at the same time the great advantage arising from their acceding to the proposed measures. They heard us patiently, and after deliberating on the subject, told us that our request could not be granted. They looked upon us with a jealous eye, and as the forerunners of some scheme of the white people, to get their lands. They alleged, that should we obtain permission to establish a school on the proposed plan, after some years we might demand a compensation for our trouble and expense in educating their children, and as they have no money we would take their land for payment. As to our proposition to teach them the art of agriculture, they said they knew enough of that to support themselves, and that was as much as they wished. With regard to their religious instruction, they observed, that the Great Spirit when he first made them, did not give the means of instruction, and therefore it was his will that they should remain as they now are. These, and many other objections of a similar nature were brought forward, which we endeavoured to answer, but it was in vain to argue with them.

The half-blood Indians are generally anxious to have their children educated, but they were afraid to use their influence in our behalf, lest they should be considered as leaguing with the white people against the full blood Indians. General M'Intosh was, at this council, made commander in chief of the Creek nation. He told us that at some future period he would give us permission to establish schools amongst them, whatever might be the consequence. We are apprehensive, however, that it will require a considerable lapse of time before establishments can be made on the plan which the society proposes. They are extremely jealous of the white people, and every attempt to obtain land from them will meet with opposition. We have therefore concluded to visit the Chickasaw nation before we return. We are both in good health, and although we have to encounter hardships, yet we feel no disposition to relinquish the work in which we are engaged. We must close this letter, as we have several correspondents in South Carolina, and but a short time to write. If we are spared, you shall hear from us again in the Chickasaw country.

T. C. Stuart,
D. Humphreys.

We have at this moment before us a piece of *jaconet muslin*, of a fabric so perfect in every particular, that we may safely assert it to be equal in every respect to any thing of the kind produced in any part of the world.

Familiar with the finest webs of Asia, we can confidently assert that the piece before us is equal in beauty, evenness, and much superior in the finishing, to the fine *mulls* of Hindostan.

This piece is the first experiment made at the factory of Messrs. Thorp and Siddel, of this neighbourhood, yet it will bear inspection and comparison with any foreign production of the same *number of yarn*.

This jaconet rivals in beauty and texture the lawns of Flanders, and for cravats, ruffles, and fine dresses, has no superior. [*Aurora.*

Messrs. Rundell and Bridges have contracted to make alterations in the British crown for 60,000*l.*! The coronation robe will cost 36,000*l.*

Vevay (Indiana), June 22.

The Vineyards.—The present crop of grapes promises a more abundant yield than that of the last season. There are about twenty-four acres under culture, which, at the last vintage, yielded upwards of 5000 gallons of wine, besides a vast quantity of grapes used for other purposes. The situation is delightful, running parallel with the river; it is the admiration of strangers, and a grateful retreat to those who live in its vicinity. The intelligent traveller, while he rests from the fatigues of his journey, finds a source of true gratification mingled with delight, in contemplating the beauties of nature and art, which are here so happily blended—the abode of rural felicity.

Thirty-five thousand five hundred and sixty passengers arrived at the port of New York from the 1st of March, 1818, to the 11th of December, 1819, as entered at the mayor's office.

Americans,	16628	Swiss,	372
English,	7629	Norwegians,	3
Irish,	6067	Swedes,	28
French,	930	Portuguese,	54
Scotch,	1492	Africans,	5
Germans,	499	Prussians,	48
Spanish,	217	Sardinians,	3
Hollanders,	155	Welshmen,	590
Italians,	103	Danes,	97

18114 reported,
13069 bonded,
4377 commuted.

35560

Literary.—This day is published, and for sale by S. Potter & Co. No. 87, and M. Thomas, No. 108, Chesnut Street, Songs of Judah, and other melodies, by William B. Tappan, author of *New England*, and other poems.

Miscellany.

We copy from the National Gazette the following letter from Edmund Pendleton, who has been so highly eulogized by Mr. Wirt, in his Life of Patrick Henry. It contains a body of sound doctrine in a very few words.

Virginia, December 4, 1792.

Sir—By my friend colonel Taylor, whom I mentioned to you at Richmond, I have to thank you for the two pamphlets presented me; which I have read with attention and pleasure, perhaps for the most powerful of all reasons, that the sentiments in general coincide with my own.

A moderate impost on imports and tonnage on vessels, may properly be made part of every fiscal system, and five per cent. seemed to have been fixed on as a standard of moderation by the general consent of America, but the object should be merely revenue, unmixed with other purposes; so that if sumptuary laws or other projects are to be tried, let it be by other detached laws to stand or fall by themselves: and let not the impost be expected to answer all governmental purposes however extensive; for that would be ruinous to trade and of course to the citizens, and they would yet be insensible of it, not knowing they paid the tax, although they did so, with large increase. No, let them at least feel this increased burden, and they will then inquire of their representatives why it is laid and how the money is disposed of, as they ought to do. Laws which interfere in the private employment of citizens, and encourage one kind at the expense of others by premiums, bounties, or prohibitions, are as impolitic as unjust; they violate private rights not ceded to society, and fetter occupations as well as barter of the produce of labour, both of which succeed best, when left free to the will and contracts of those concerned. It is a fallacious argument indeed, that the agricultural interest is benefited by opening one new market for their produce and supplies, when the acquisition is made by means tending to exclude all competition, and give a monopoly in both to the new agent—and such is the effect of these laws, the weight of which fall upon tillage; whereas when manufactures are left to grow out of the natural order of things, they come to the agricultural market as new competitors, upon equal or better terms; and until they can afford to do so without the aid of premiums, it is better for them and the community too, that they should remain in tilling the earth. I cannot conceive any reasoning, however specious, which is less solid, than a kind I have frequently met with, "that the whole price paid for imported articles which might be made here is lost to the community," which is fully refuted by a familiar case put to prove it: *A.* is a farmer who has produce to barter for necessaries; a foreigner offers to allow him 10*l.* for his produce and to furnish the articles he wants at 8*l.* *B.* is a neighbouring manufacturer who wants and will allow *A.* for the produce the 10*l.* but must have 10*l.* for the necessaries in exchange, either for want of skill or industry in his business—for want of proper hands or instruments to carry it on—or most probably from the superior value of labour employed in husbandry to that of the other. If *A.* barters with *B.*, how is the 8*l.* saved to the community? Is it not obvious that trade with the foreigner would have entitled *A.*

to a balance of 40s. in cash, clear gain to him and to the community too (who are as a body only interested in the balances paid or received in cash in foreign trade). Now if the legislature add a tax upon the necessaries, of 40s. to prevent the foreigner from underselling *B.*, they not only improperly intermeddle with the private dealings of *A.* and *B.*, but in plain English tax *A.* 40s. a year to save *B.* from loss, for he gains nothing, having laid out the sum in increased expenses. Is this just, or consistent with the equal rights of both? or for the interest of society? by no means, let both alone and *B.* will either improve his system so as to save his 40s. without loss to *A.* or take up *A.*'s occupation and gain 40s. and add that sum also to the gain of the community.

The spirit of the British navigation acts, though applauded there, and by most governments in the world, is founded on a narrow, selfish policy, unfriendly to the general interests of mankind, and therefore when adopted, must be supported by a powerful navy at a ruinous expense. I believe upon a fair calculation it has that way cost Britain 100*l.* at least for every penny benefit she has derived from this favoured policy; although her insular situation and remote colonies made a considerable navy necessary for her security. America is not in that situation; and I hope never to see a navy attempted, beyond what is adequate to secure our coasts from pirates and marauders, and keep the peace between our own as well as foreign trading vessels in our ports and on the coasts; leaving the respect to our flag to rest upon the fair dealing and good behaviour of our citizens in foreign countries, and on their carrying valuable commodities to market, as is now the case.

This will admit of a noble, liberal, and beneficial policy to open our ports to all the world, without discriminating or retaliating regulations; let all scramble for the trade of purchasing our produce and furnishing supplies of necessaries, whilst our citizens are engaged in agriculture, the most profitable, as well as the most independent and honourable employment of man; at the same time let all employments be free and open to such as choose them, whether merchant, carrier, seaman, or tradesman, without clog or restraint. I beg pardon for having troubled you with my crude thoughts upon subjects you appear so much better acquainted with; and am with much respect, sir, your most obedient servant, EDMUND PENDLETON.

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

HONEST CONFESSIONS.

The following extract—the exordium of an article on Mr. Walsh's "Appeal"—is taken from the British publication, the Eclectic Review for May, 1820. It is in a strain of very honest acknowledgment and good sense, which we should be glad to see common with the British journals on the subject of the United States.

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"The Americans," said Dr. Johnson, "are a race of convicts, and ought to be thankful for any thing we allow them short of hanging." Whatever might be thought of the liberality or the propriety of this anathema at the time when it was uttered, it will be granted that, under present circumstances, it sounds rather obsolete: this "race of convicts" no longer either live upon our bounty, or wait for our respite from the gallows. But yet, if the express terms of the sentence we have quoted are now inadmissible, the spirit it breathes seems not at all to have forsaken us; and our writers, of almost all parties, might very well adopt it as a standing text or motto to their effusions relative to the people of the United States. There has been a greater unanimity in our jealousy towards America, than is usual in England towards her other rivals. The diverse aims and the strong distinctions of party, have been nearly merged in the common feeling of hostility. The same temper shows itself on all sides; whether it be in the sedate ill will of noble lords, or in the less measured ill will of honourable gentlemen, or in the daily, monthly, or quarterly effusions of political spleen. No one, indeed, would ask or expect, that the tories should forget their old grudge against America, and either moderate or conceal their aversion towards these "republicans;" but, on many grounds, less prejudice, less intemperance, might have been anticipated on the part of their opponents: yet, even the instinctive antipathy of the tory, has hardly displayed a more deep-seated animosity, than has been discovered in the sarcasm and affected candour of the whig.

It is said, and it seems generally, if not universally, true, that, in a free country, nothing but fear ever avails to produce uniformity of opinion. Hence it is argued, that some forcible impression of impending danger must be operating when the leaders of opposing parties are seen, on a particular subject, to concur in the scope of their arguments, and the points to which they seem to be leading public opinion. Mere national jealousy, under ordinary circumstances,

has not been found to produce this concurrence of parties. In illustration of this remark, it may be recollected how rarely the English people have flattered our near neighbour and old rival by exhibiting this sort of unanimous hostility. The general voice has never been heard in one full harmonious peal of invective against France. Throughout the late contest, (some few moments of immediate alarm excepted,) there has existed enough of that feeling of ulterior security, founded upon the consciousness of strength, which affords room for party discussion and division relative to the character, condition, and power of an enemy. In looking round with confidence upon our watery defences, we have not only found leisure to quarrel among ourselves, but even to bestow upon our enemy some careless speculation and unanxious candour.

But must, then, a humiliating inference of an opposite kind, be deduced from the present concurrent hostility of all parties towards the Americans? There is a specific style of fierce sarcasm, which characterizes hatred when touched by despondency; but is it true that the English press is assuming this style towards America? We suppose, at least, that the immediate authors of the snarling and unmanly railing and jesting of which the American people have lately been the objects, would not wish the common adage to be applied to them—that no man is a bully till he is frightened. But whether or not this adage would be appropriate to the occasion, it must be granted, that the disappearance of candour is always an ominous circumstance. At present, the ill temper of our writers is producing only a correspondent irritation and ill temper among the Americans; but they cannot fail, ere long, to deduce from it an inference altogether flattering to their national vanity: they will not be slow to reason to their own advantage from the fact, that themselves are the only people in the world whom English writers dare not treat with moderation.

It will, we know, be said, that the leaders of public opinion, of all parties, have been influenced by the supposed necessity of seeking to check or divert the stream of emigration that has been flowing towards the American wastes; and that they have believed that, if truth would not suffice for the exigency of the occasion, misrepresentation, and even shameless calumny, might be justified by the patriotic intention with which they were employed. A motive of this kind seems, in fact, to have been in operation. Little practical regard is paid to the principle, that, in a country where the press is free, the attempt to pervert opinion, is sure to produce a large excess of mischievous reaction; and that delusion, used as an engine of policy, commonly explodes in the hands of those who employ it, even before it has produced its immediate and intended effect. But there is something in the use of indirect means, which flatters the self importance of those who are pleased to fancy themselves charged with the fates of their country. This is especially the case with that band of masked volunteers in the public service—the writers of our daily, monthly, and quarterly journals. We are apt to believe ourselves both more sagacious and more courageous than plain morality would make us, when we incur the personal damage and risk of practising some *virtuous vice* for the public good. Thus, for instance, if it seems expedient to persuade our English capitalists, farmers and mechanics that America is a terrestrial pandemonium, where is the patriot writer who will not brave the ninth commandment?

Besides this supposed necessity of aiming to check the emigration of our people to the American states, it seems to have been thought, that our present amicable relations with the republican government are too precarious for us prudently to suffer the precious *materiel* of war—national hatred, to fall into decay. Our presses, therefore, as well as our powder mills, must continue to furnish the full war *quantum* of combustibles, so that, at any moment, when the auspicious conjuncture presents itself, it may be easy to wake up in full energy the fratricidal impulse. Thus the worst evils of war must be artificially perpetuated, lest they should come upon us by surprise! And those who make it their high business to watch over, to cherish, and to direct the passions of mankind, have been fain to shed every malign drug, to inject every venom into the wound that threatened to heal.

To whatever causes may be attributed the hostility of English writers towards the people of the United States, it would not be just to reckon among them any provocation received from the alleged intemperance of the American press. In the warfare of the pen, we have been, from the very nature of the case, the aggressors. The entire current of literature flows westward: there is no regular, no observable reflux of this tide. It is true, we may now and then hear of the rancour of some New York or Charleston journalist; and perhaps a straggling para-

graph of Virginia invective may occasionally find its way into our reviews or papers. But the slightest attention to the case, will make apparent the wide and important dissimilarity of the circumstances of the two people in this respect. The people of England have not been exposed to the unremitted irritation of having diffused among them a regular importation of all the obloquy, bitterness, and ridicule, which the able ill will of a rival continually furnishes. Our writers have not been unavoidably trained to the business of invective, by having the galling labour imposed upon them, of rebutting, every day, fresh attacks, of refuting fresh slanders, and of retorting fresh sarcasms. Nor have English readers been subjected to the cruel necessity of imbibing a maddening poison mingled in all their intellectual food. We say then, that, whatever may have been the will of American writers, it has not been in their power to inflict a wound which might exonerate us from the charge of aggression. Further than this, it must be remarked, that even the disposition to attack or defame England, can be imputed only to *one party* in the United States. Animosity towards England has been in America a party matter, and not, like the enmity in England against America, the very point on which all parties have met. A large portion, and it may be confidently said the most respectable portion, of the American people—the federalists, have, at least till very lately, been distinguished by their favourable dispositions towards England. It is true, we may at length have succeeded in alienating these partialities, (and we may, too, affect to contemn the loss,) but we *have had* friends, apologists, even partizans, in almost every state of the union. If calumnies have been uttered in America against England, in America also they have met with a generous refutation. But can it be affirmed that unfavourable reports relative to America, even when of the most suspicious character, have been treated here with any common measure of discrimination, or have been listened to with any symptoms of candid reluctance? American writers have perceived, therefore, that the national reputation must rest solely on their advocacy, and that in meeting their opponents and accusers, no neutral ground was left to them for parley or concession. Despairing of being heard or replied to with candour, they have learned that moderation on their part has lost its price and reward; for it is alone the hope of a reciprocation that gives a price to moderation. Of course, now, no bounds are set to the indulgence or to the expression of those exasperated passions which we have never aimed to sooth. And perhaps there are writers among us, who, far from feeling surprise or regret, will rather hail the deadly tokens of their own successful agency, since they seem to have thought it essential to the security of our islands, to convert the waters of the Atlantic into a Dead sea, which no bird of peace shall traverse.

From the Pennsylvania Gazette, Nov. 18, 1736.

THE WASTE OF LIFE.

BY DR. FRANKLIN.

Anergus was a gentleman of a good estate, he was bred to no business, and could not contrive how to waste his hours agreeably; he had no relish for any of the proper works of life, nor any taste at all for the improvements of the mind; he spent generally ten hours of the four and twenty in his bed; he dozed away two or three more on his couch, and as many were dissolved in good liquor every evening, if he met with company of his own humour. Five or six of the rest he sauntered away with much indolence: the chief business of them was to contrive his meals, and to feed his fancy before hand, with the promise of a dinner and supper; not that he was so very a glutton, or so entirely devoted to appetite; but chiefly because he knew not how to employ his thoughts better, he let them rove about the sustenance of his body. Thus he had made a shift to wear off ten years since the paternal estate fell into his hands: and yet, according to the abuse of words in our day, he was called a man of virtue, because he was scarce ever known to be quite drunk, nor was his nature much inclined to lewdness.

One evening as he was musing alone, his thoughts happened to take a most unusual turn, for they cast a glance backward, and began to reflect on his manner of life. He bethought himself what a number of living beings had been made a sacrifice to support his carcase, and how much corn and wine had been mingled with those offerings. He had not quite lost all the arithmetic that he learned when he was a boy, and he set himself to compute what he had devoured since he came to the age of man.

"About a dozen feathered creatures, small and great, have one week with another (said he) given up their lives to prolong mine, which in ten years amounts to at least six thousand.

"Fifty sheep have been sacrificed in a

year, with half a hecatomb of black cattle, that I might have the choicest part offered weekly upon my table. Thus a thousand beasts out of the flock and the herd have been slain in ten years' time to feed me, besides what the forest has supplied me with. Many hundreds of fishes have in all their varieties, been robbed of life for my repast, and of the smaller fry as many thousands.

"A measure of corn would hardly afford fine flour enough for a month's provision, and this arises to above six score bushels; and many hogsheads of ale and wine, and other liquors, have passed through this body of mine, this wretched strainer of meat and drink.

"And what have I done all this time for God or *man?* What a vast profusion of good things upon an useless life, and a worthless liver! There is not the meanest creature among all these which I have devoured, but hath answered the end of its creation better than I. It was made to support human nature, and it hath done so. Every crab and oyster I have eat, and every grain of corn I have devoured, hath filled up its place in the rank of beings with more propriety and honour than I have done: O shameful waste of life and time!"

In short, he carried on his moral reflections with so just and severe a force of reason, as constrained him to change his whole course of life, to break off his follies at once, and to apply himself to gain some useful knowledge, when he was more than thirty years of age; he lived many following years, with the character of a worthy man, and an excellent Christian; he peformed the kind offices of a good neighbour at home, and made a shining figure as a patriot in the senate-house; he died with a peaceful conscience, and the tears of his country were dropped upon his tomb.

The world, that knew the whole series of his life, stood amazed at the mighty change. They beheld him as a wonder of reformation, while he himself confessed and adored the divine power and mercy, which had transformed him from a brute to a man.

But this was a single instance; and we may almost venture to write MIRACLE upon it. Are there not numbers of both sexes among our young gentry, in this degenerate age, whose lives thus run to utter waste, without the least tendency to usefulnes.

When I meet with persons of such a worthless character as this, it brings to my mind some scraps of Horace,

Nos numerus sumus, & fruges consumere nati.
——— Alcinoique Juventus
Cui pulchrum fuit in Medios dormire dies, &c.

PARAPHRASE.

There are a number of us creep
Into this world, to eat and sleep;
And know no reason why they're born,
But merely to consume the corn,
Devour the cattle, fowl, and fish,
And leave behind an empty dish:
Tho' crows and ravens do the same,
Unlucky birds of hateful name;
Ravens or crows might fill their places,
And swallow corn and carcases.
Then, if their tombstone, when they die,
Ben't taught to flatter and to lie,
There's nothing better will be said,
Than that they've eat up all their bread,
Drank all their drink, and gone to bed.

There are other fragments of that heathen poet, which occur on such occasions; one in the first of his satires, the other in the last of his epistles, which seem to represent life only as a season of luxury.

——— Exacto contentus tempore vitæ
Cedat uti conviva satur ———
Lusisti satus, edisti satis atque bibisti;
Tempus abire tibi.

WHICH MAY BE THUS PUT INTO ENGLISH.

Life's but a feast; and when we die
Horace would say, if he were by,
Friend, thou hast eat and drank enough,
'Tis time now to be marching off:
Then like a well-fed guest depart,
With cheerful looks, and ease at heart;
Bid all your friends good night, and say,
You've done the business of the day.

NOVELS.

EXTRACT.

"The path of novel writing once laid open was imagined easy by all, and for about forty years the press was deluged with works to which we believe the literary history of no other country could produce a parallel. The milliners' prentices who had expended their furtive hours, and drenched their maudlin fancies with tales of kneeling lords and ranting baronets at the feet of fair sempstresses, fair as they believed themselves to be, and in narrow back parlours dark as their own, soon found it easy to stain the well thumbed pages of a circulating library book with flimsy sentiments and loose descriptions of their own. A syllabus of these writings may be given in a few words; they do not deserve so many, had not every phenomenon or rather lusus in the literary world a claim on our curiosity, if not on our interest.

"The heroine must be exquisitely, *unimaginably* beautiful, though two chapters are usually devoted to the description of

her charms, or, as we should word it, "her transparent loveliness;" on the subject of eyes being black or blue, we find nearly a division of authorities, and therefore do not dare to decide on a question of such delicate importance, but with the consent of all copies we venture to read for her figure "tall and slender." She must be an orphan (if a foundling, so much the better,) left mysteriously in the care of some opulent and noble family, who most unaccountably (considering their character for prudence) suffer her to board and lodge with them, and water her geraniums till the decisive age of sixteen, though conscious that the noble and enamoured heir of the family has been in love with her from their mutual cradles, which by a malicious contrivance of Cupid were placed next each other in the nursery. Now comes on the trying part of the business, the heroine is distracted by the ambition of the father, the pride of the mother, and the jealous insults of the sisters, not forgetting a snug misery of her own arising from the persecutions of some desperate baronet, who, every night leaps the garden wall for the cold consolation of seeing the farthing candle twinkle in his mistress's garret, where she weeps over the indignity of proposals urged by the steward's nephew in the house, or the grocer's heir in the village, to whom all the family lineal or collateral, in full and frequent divan, are resolved on uniting her as a punishment for her presumption, and a security against their own disgrace. This supposititious lover, this interloper in Cupid's territories, must be as selfish as Solmes, as treacherous as Blifil, and as deformed as Richard; most copies agree in his having a squint, and red hair, but in any case his legs must be bandy. Persecuted by love and hatred, she flies, flies over mountains without a stain on her white satin slippers, and is rumbled two hundred miles in a stage coach without a rent in her gossamer drapery. She must be run away with five or six times before she reaches the end of her journey (a trifling interruption, as she happens not to know where she is flying to,) and it is on such occasions that she displays that extraordinary contrast of physical debility and mental independence, of fragility and hardihood, that constitutes the very essence of a novel heroine. She is intoxicated with the smell of a lily, and faints at the murmurs of an Æolian harp; she melts in elegy over a dying linnet, and sheds as many tears over a fallen leaf as would prepare its fibres for a place in a hortus siccus; she feeds for a fortnight together on bread and water, lest Clarissa's soporifics should be mixed in her food; lies down in her clothes, which never require washing or mending, in spite of being made to do double duty; watches through nights, and weeps through the day, without any diminution of the lustre of the eye, or the slightest symptom of ophthalmia; and after all this, she has resolution enough, though she never drew a trigger, to hold a loaded pistol to the head of her profligate seducer; to burst, scramble and tear her way through casement, thicket, forest, and fence, to secure her retreat; and then, with the strength of a horse and courage of a lion, to seat herself, without a sous in her pocket, on the top of a stage coach, her fear, famine, delicacy, and suspicious loveliness "in no wise notwithstanding." When the vehicle breaks down (for this it must do) she can tramp in her silk stocking feet, and her whole wardrobe in a cambric handkerchief (that has never been washed but in her tears) straight up Piccadilly, and then new troubles begin: every gentleman she sees follows her, and, at last, sinking under the consciousness of beauty, misfortune, and wet feet, she trembles, totters, or glides into the back parlour of a shop in the Strand, to beg for a glass of water; for heroines at the last gasp must never take any thing stronger; finds a congenial soul in the interesting face of the shopkeeper, who, with incredible liberality, offers her a gratuitous asylum, (so like London shopkeepers,) and, lovely and humble as Lavinia, she takes her station in a slip of a room, where half the peerage crowd the shop every day to peep at her through a canvas blind. Here she maintains herself by her marvellous talents in embroidering or painting fan-sticks, the sale exceeding not only possibility, but even her utmost expectations, which, it may be inferred were never regulated by it in the slightest degree. At length, the interesting matron turns out a procuress in due form; and, in spite of the industry and taste of the heroine, (which by this time ought to have secured her a comfortable property in the three per cents), arrests her for board and lodging, or charges her with theft, drags her before a magistrate, and just as she is about to be fully committed (in spite of two hysterical attacks, and a fainting fit very well got up, with the assistance of the clerk and two bailiffs, the magistrate ogling at her all the while,) and is disappearing through one door, the hero enters through the other, clasps her to his bosom, maugre the bailiff's followers, swears that nothing shall divide them, and in proof

of his asseveration draws his sword: in the struggle, her wig or her handkerchief (we forget which) drops off, and her *mole cinque-spotted*, or strawberry-mark, or something equally conclusive and satisfactory, is discovered, by which she is proved to be a duke's daughter or a peeress in her own right: her noble family in the same breath recognise her, and give their consent to her marriage: her disappointed lovers, one and all, pair off with the "sweet friends," into whose sympathizing ears her epistolary sorrows had been poured through five volumes. The ten last pages are devoted to a description of the dress for the wedding; much honourable mention is made of white satin, and due notice of hartshorn; and, for the style, vide Miss Edgeworth's incomparable description of Mrs. Beaumont's marriage in *Manœuvring*, where 'the interesting almost fainting, lady, is lifted out of the arms of her anxious and alarmed bridemaids, and supported up the aisle, with the marked gallantry of true tenderness, by her happy bridegroom sir John Hunter.'"

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The Controllers of the Public Schools to the inhabitants of the city of Philadelphia and the adjoining districts.

Fellow Citizens—The nature of the duties devolved upon us by a law of the state, in the capacity of controllers of the public schools established in this extensive and populous district, has introduced us to an acquaintance with the habits and dispositions of those children who are intended to be trained to moral order, and instructed in practical scholastic learning, consistently with the wise and benevolent injunction of the constitution of Pennsylvania. The knowledge in this respect incident to our official stations, though in a high degree encouraging and consolatory, is not altogether unmixed with solicitude and sorrow, on account of the unpromising condition of many of the indigent youth of the city of Philadelphia and its suburbs. We consider that to effect the judicious instruction of this part of the rising generation cannot too seriously claim the regard of a reflecting people, as most eminently conducive to the melioration of their condition, and consequently productive of a healthful organization of society. Such are, no doubt, your opinions in relation to this subject, but we are anxious to discharge with fidelity the interesting and important trust committed to us, and hence we deem it proper to solicit your especial attention to this department of public economy and morals, as closely allied to the welfare of individuals, and to the prosperity and security of the community.

In thirteen schools over which our superintendence extends, are now registered upwards of *four thousand pupils*, who are nearly equally divided as to sex. These are conducted by male and female teachers of respectable literary qualifications, and of good private character. The discipline of the schools is mild, always preferring rewards to punishments, and the plan of education adopted is certainly calculated to confer upon the children a knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic; in addition to which, the girls are instructed to sew and knit. The cost of each scholar per annum, including every expense, does not exceed four dollars.

In all the schools there is a large proportion of children who gratefully embrace the means afforded for their improvement, and they are commendably industrious; toward those we look with pleasure as preparing for the discharge of their duties in future life with reputation to themselves and benefit to society. But whilst we contemplate with unaffected gratification this description of pupils, we have with regret to observe in the conduct of others, a shameful inattention to the advantages so freely offered to their acceptance, as well as a criminal neglect of their parents to require, and ascertain, that their children attend regularly at school; whilst others, preferring the temporary benefits they derive from the services of their children, detain them at home employed in domestic work.

Some of these delinquents, together with a large number of other children, whose natural protectors, utterly disregarding the welfare of their offspring, have never requested for them admission into the public schools, form an idle and dissolute class of beings who prowl about the wharves, and streets of the city, trespass upon the fields in its vicinity, pilfer the inhabitants, offend the feeling heart with obscene, and often profane language, and thus qualify themselves for the most serious and daring violations of the laws, when they shall have arrived at maturer age, and become confirmed in depravity.

When we consider the beneficial influence which has been exerted on the character and habits of a vast majority of pupils taught under our notice, we lament that it has hitherto been impracticable, for

the reasons assigned, to confer similar advantages upon every indigent and friendless child in the community. On account of these deplorably neglected children our compassion has been excited; we feel desirous that they may avoid, for their own peace and comfort, the sad issue of a career so unhappily begun, and that society may escape the calamity of their wicked propensities, as well as be exempt from the necessity of punishing their crimes. Whether, to reach and correct the growing evil to which we have alluded, may be within the constitutional power of the legislature, by requiring the parents of all poor children to send them to the schools gratuitously provided, is a question which may perhaps be worthy of your consideration, preparatory to the submission of it at some future period to the notice of the lawgivers of the state. Should any penalty for noncompliance be approved, we have thought it might consist of a declaration, that parents whose children were not sent to school should be prevented from receiving aid from the annual public provision made for the indigent.

We are, however, aware that no compulsory measures can now be resorted to, and our object is to ask from you such aid toward to the general object, as may be afforded without much inconvenience.

Among the means which suggest themselves as likely to produce a reformation of the errors which are so lamentably obvious, we could hope that *admonition* to parents and children of the character mentioned, would not prove unavailing. To place before their view the inevitable ruin of reputation which must follow the conduct they pursue, contrasted with the blessings which might be expected to flow from orderly habits, and the acquirement of useful learning to fit them for respectable occupations in life, would probably induce them to act differently. As opportunities occur, every citizen may be enabled to inculcate lessons of this nature, whilst the guardians of the poor, and the members of the numerous charitable societies whose philanthropic avocations bring them in contact with this description of persons, could with singular propriety enforce the obligation they are under, to send their children to the public schools. We also believe that great benefit would result in this particular, if magistrates and other peace officers would reprimand those boys who idly wander about the streets, and frequently collect in parties to the annoyance of the inhabitants, and to their own injury; advising them to attend the schools to which they belong, or apply for admission if they may not have been entered as scholars.

You, with us, fellow citizens, being equally interested in whatever may tend to the promotion of the common welfare, produces a confidence in our minds that you will co-operate in the present manifestly important experiment of public education. If the existing system, organized through much difficulty, and at considerable expense, can be adequately and energetically carried into effect, by having brought under its care *every child who would otherwise grow up destitute of instruction*—if, in the place of that depravity and ignorance, to which so many of our youth are exposed, it is possible, as we believe it to be, to form them to habits of order and industry, to inculcate virtuous lessons, combined with other useful learning, through the instrumentality of the public schools, it would seem to be no ordinary duty to endeavour effectually to accomplish purposes of such moment and magnitude.

By order of the Board,
ROBERTS VAUX, President.
(Attest) T. M. PETTIT, Secretary.
Chamber of the Controllers,
7th mo. (*July*) 12, 1820.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

A List of the Books of the New and Old Testaments, which are missing.

Copied from the manuscript of Isaac Norris, in one of his Bibles in the possession of the late John Dickinson, esq.

REFERRED TO IN

Numbers xxi. 14.—The book of the battles of the Lord.

Joshua x. 13. 2 Samuel i. 18.—The book of Jasher.

1 Kings iv. 32, 33.—The books of Solomon.

1 Chron. xxix. 29.—The book of Gad the seer.

2 Chron. ix. 29.—The book of Nathan the prophet.

Id. ibid.—The prophecy of Abijah the Shelonite.

Id. ibid.—The visions of Iddo the seer against Jeroboam the son of Nebat.

Ibid. xii. 15.—The book of Shemaiah the prophet and of Iddo the seer concerning the genealogies.

Ibid. xx. 34.—The book of Jehu the son of Hanani.

Ibid. xxxiii. 19.—The sayings of Hosai.

1 Cor. v. 9.—Paul's epistle to the Corinthians.

Eph. iii. 3.—Paul's first epistle to the Ephesians.

Col. iv. 16.—Epistle from the Laodiceans.

Jude 14.—The prophecy of Enoch.

T. G.

Wilmington, 1800.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, July 29, 1820. No. 5.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of a resolution of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, passed June 20, 1820, authorizing a committee, consisting of the President and Curators, to publish such communications to the society as they may think proper—it was resolved by the committee, that the following be printed in the National Recorder, published by Littell & Henry, at Philadelphia.

By order of the Curators.

I. C. JONES.

Sharon, Bucks County, Pennsylvania,
1st February, 1820.

Dear Sir—Among the valuable memoirs of your society, there are several communications relative to the Hessian fly; but none of them sufficiently traces its history, or offers any plan that can be relied on to prevent its ravages. Indeed, it is lamentable, that an insect of its grade could have been suffered so long to have committed such devastation as has been ascribed to it. I, however, trust that its career will soon be closed, having during the last fall had an opportunity of investigating the subject, much to my own satisfaction; and as the society appears to feel a deep interest in it, I will now give you my ideas upon it.

On the 9th October last, my very intelligent and worthy neighbour, Mr. John Linton, informed me, that, on the preceding day, he saw the fly in the act of depositing its eggs upon the leaf of the young wheat in the stubble field. Taking this valuable and well timed hint, on the 11th I went into the stubble field, to witness the interesting spectacle stated by Mr. Linton. I was, however, totally disappointed; not a fly was to be seen; but, on examining the plants with a glass, I found the work was completed; an astonishing number of eggs were deposited, scarcely a plant had escaped, and some had more than twenty eggs each. Next day I met with one of the young caterpillars, that had just burst-ed its shell, and was moving down the leaf: the day after I discovered a plant where the caterpillars had all left the leaf (which I could readily determine by the mark or crust of the egg), and by carefully stripping down the leaf, I saw them on the stalk, about a dozen in number, and some of them within an inch of the root. On the 18th of the same month, the caterpillars had generally passed from the leaf, and many of them had reached the end of their journey. About the middle of November, in a warm exposure, some of them had changed to the flaxseed or chrysalis state; and at this time the most of them are in that state. During my researches, I found them much the most numerous in stubble fields that had not been pastured, and that grain sown after September had sustained no damage.

The history of the insect and its larvæ, as far as I have ascertained by actual observation, is as follows:—The fly certainly deposits its eggs in the gutters or furrows of the leaf, on the upper side, from half an inch to an inch or more from the stalk, choosing a position sufficiently exposed to the sun, and affording a sure passage to the stalk, preferring plants having only two leaves fully out; in a few days, probably not exceeding ten, if the weather should be favourable, the eggs (which are oblong, of a brown or somewhat yellow colour) become hatched, and the young caterpillar, of a reddish colour, moves down the leaf to its junction with the stalk, then

passes between the footstalk of the leaf and body of the plant to near the root, where it is usually seen; it soon afterwards assumes a transparent white appearance, being probably bleached by its covering (I infer this, because I met with two cases where there was an aperture at its lodgment—it was nearly black); it there feeds on the sap of the plant, until it attains its full growth, and passes into the chrysalis state; it seems only calculated to perform a passage from the leaf to near the root; an outer coat or tegument is there formed, which renders it incapable of further motion; it then appears perfectly at rest, and is mistaken for an egg or nit (its prior state not having been noticed) and the injury sustained is supposed to be by its pressure upon the stem of the plant, when, in fact, it is a worm actually feeding on its juices: as soon as it changes to the flax-seed colour, by rolling it lightly with the finger, the tegument can be taken off, the worm will then appear with a greenish stripe through it, which is evidently the substance extracted from the plant: neither the egg nor young caterpillar, during its movement, can be distinctly seen without a glass; which every farmer ought to have, as it would enable him at all times to know the state of this and other insects. I think it probable, that another deposit of eggs will take place early in the spring, and perhaps a third between that and fall; but this conjecture remains for future investigation.

It appears to me that this insect can be utterly exterminated, by deferring to sow all grains affected by it until the fall deposit takes place; in which case the eggs will be lain on the young plants in the stubble field; then immediately afterwards commence pasturing or burning, which will destroy a large proportion, and any time during the larvæ state (about the first of November the last season would have been a good time, but even now would answer) plough up the stubble fields well, which will finish the remainder, except such as are among the plants about stack yards, which must also be attended to. I have satisfactorily proven the efficacy of this plan, by ploughing a field where myriads were lodged; but it will probably fail of success, by not being generally gone into at the proper season, and it will be in vain for a few individuals to make the attempt. Let us then endeavour to ascertain that time of sowing which will be attended with most advantages: the first week in October, I have often heard mentioned, by experienced farmers, as the most safe; but there have been instances of its being too early on account of the fly, and at other seasons too late on account of the winter. We may now, however, guard against the fall deposit, by observing the state of the insect, and sowing accordingly; and should the wheat be sufficiently rooted before winter sets in, I presume the spring deposit need not be dreaded, where the ground is well manured, and the season favourable: for although it will certainly destroy the branch upon which it is lodged, yet, the root being strong, it will throw up other branches sufficient to insure a good crop: nevertheless, we may be disappointed in our calculations, by an early or severe winter, and thereby sustain more damage than we should have done by the fly if sown earlier; besides, should the wheat not be well rooted when the spring deposit is made, it will undoubtedly be seriously injured. Under all these circumstances, I am clearly of opinion, that it would be best to sow the grain as early as possible, not later than the first of September, and immediately on the fly completing its deposit of eggs (which can easily be known by proper attention) turn in sheep or cattle sufficient to pasture it close in the course of a week or ten days: if the deposit should not be made before October (as was the case last season) the grain will not be injured by pasturing; the cattle, or whatever may be turned in, will be benefited; and the roots of the plants will then have attained strength to resist the attack of the fly, in case pasturing should prove ineffectual. I can now show roots in the stubble field, that have completely resisted the attack, even where a great number of the larvæ are lodged. If it should so happen that it will be imprudent to pasture, and the ground is not too rough or stony, I would suggest the propriety of rolling, commencing as soon as the eggs are hatched, as the caterpillar is then in a tender state, and while on the leaf or upper part of the stalk might be easily crushed. As a further precaution, I would think it advisable not to sow near a stubble field; but where it cannot be avoided, perhaps sowing rye on that side might have some tendency to preserve the wheat. I conceive it an error to say that any kind of wheat is of that vigorous growth, that the stem will resist the fly; if the fly attacks it at all, it is the root that must be depended on, and it is idle to suppose that sowing oats with wheat (as recommended by some writers) can have any good effect. This is fully proven by the practice of sowing wheat on oats stub-

ble; the usual complaint is "too much oats," without in the least degree preserving the wheat; besides, I have during the past season carefully examined the oats, and did not discover a single instance of deposit amongst it. The fly is remarkably sagacious in depositing its progeny, its egg being exactly fitted to the gutter of the leaf of the plant, where it is very securely lodged. I therefore infer that, if there is a kind of wheat which the insect avoids, it must be on account of its leaf being smooth, and not offering a place of safety. I do not know that there is any such kind, but I think it deserves examination. I shall consider it my duty to endeavour to trace the insect and its effects throughout the whole year, and should any thing further appear worth communicating, you may expect to hear from me.

Yours, very respectfully,

JAMES WORTH.

ROBERTS VAUX, esq. *Secretary to the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture.*

A correspondent of the Concord paper says, ground plaster of Paris, sprinkled on plants in the morning, while the dew is on them, as far as he has had experience of it, has proved a sure preventive to their being destroyed by flies and bugs; and it has this further advantage, he says, that it assists the plants in their growth.

SEEDING.

It is a very general impression among gardeners, that several species of garden seeds cannot be raised in America in perfection; among these are the invaluable species of battersea, early york, and early sugar-loaf cabbage. English seeds must, therefore, be imported, at an expense of four or five dollars the pound, to set our crops annually. *This is an error.* Experience has taught me that these seeds can be raised in as great perfection in our country as in England. These species of cabbage are generally sown very early, in hotbeds, for early use, and come into perfection and full head early in July, and consequently the crop is exhausted before fall, and none left to propagate the species. To obviate this, I have reserved a few seeds, sowed them early in June, and set the plants late; by which means I have had a good supply of heads in the fall. This late crop is as easily preserved as any other species of cabbage, and, if so preserved, and set in the spring, will yield a plentiful supply of seed. During the war I resorted to this expedient, and for five years past have had complete success. Some precaution is, however, necessary in setting these peculiar species: they should be carefully separated, and set at a distance from other species; otherwise they will degenerate and intermix with the other kinds, and produce a mongrel species. So careful are the English gardeners to prevent this mixture of sorts, that nets are thrown over each kind when in blossom, to prevent the bees from carrying the farina of one kind to another, to mix and spoil the varieties. The same precautions, I have no hesitation in saying, will produce any one species of cabbage seed in as great perfection in this country as in England or France.

[*Albany Plough Boy.*

KEEPING OF HORSES.

Every gentleman, who is obliged by his health or his business to keep a horse, complains of the enormous expense incurred by it. If allowed to eat and waste as much as he chooses, a horse will consume from four to five tons of hay in a year besides the necessary grain. But it is asserted, on actual experiment, that ten pounds of good hay, with two quarts of corn a day, are enough to keep a common horse in fine order. Ten pounds of hay a day are 3650 pounds, little more than a ton and a half a year; and two quarts of corn per day are about twenty-three bushels a year. Call hay seven dollars a ton, and corn four shillings a bushel, and you make the annual expense of feeding a horse twenty six or seven dollars, about half as much as it commonly costs.

To keep a horse in the cheapest and healthiest manner, let him stand on green turf, dug up pretty thick, and placed on the floor of his stable: let him be carefully and faithfully curried every day. This is of more importance than is sometimes imagined. It opens the pores and preserves a healthful state of the skin, on which, in horses as well as in men, depends as much as on almost any thing else the proper and healthy operation of the various animal functions.

Although the inferior animals are not, like men, subject to unnatural appetites on account of unnatural stimulants received into the stomach, they unquestionably often consume more food than is necessary to maintain their vigour and spirit. This surplus it is economy to ascertain and retrench.

Corn is cheaper than oats for horses, be-

cause there is more heart in a quantity of the same price. It is better to be given two or three times a day in small messes; and to be given dry, that the mastication of it may keep the mouth in a healthy state.

To measure hay, the tare of a basket may be taken, and the hay given from it in small quantities through the day, but chiefly at night.

A horse that is not used should be fed with corn but sparingly. It should occasionally be salted.

It is not perhaps generally considered, that horses are as much subject to colds and fevers as men. They should, therefore be used with great tenderness and delicacy, and often washed in cold water. The pulse generally indicates the health of a horse. It may be felt about an inch back of the eye, and in health beats about 35 strokes in a minute.

The great secret in making horses look well and do well, is attention to them. Men who are too *great gentlemen* to look to their horses, must be too great gentlemen to ride good ones.

In using horses, it is better to drive briskly and stop often, than to drive even slowly by long stages. [*Dartmouth Herald.*

Public Economy.

FROM THE RICHMOND ENQUIRER.

Penitentiary System in the United States.

That a government, founded on the principles of the United States, should remain so long in the practice of punishing offenders against its laws in the cruel and sanguinary way, the offspring of barbarous ages, is a matter of much surprise, with all considerate men. When we see the great efforts that have been made, and are making, by the states, to establish a criminal code more congenial with the principles of their government, some of which have, to a certain degree succeeded, it is impossible not to regret that the general government has done nothing towards ameliorating and softening the condition of the deluded victims to vice, who have offended against the peace and dignity of the nation. I am aware that there remains a riveted prejudice against the penitentiary system in our country, and this, in some respects, is not to be wondered at, from the circumstances of a few of these institutions being wretchedly mismanaged. But this, I am persuaded, is not so much the defect of the system itself, as of the laws upon which their government is founded. It certainly is discouraging to engage in a subject when the individual states seem to meet with so little success as they have done in certain instances. But, to take a more perfect and impartial view, and to compare the advantages and disadvantages likely to result to society, it will be found that justice calls aloud to the philanthropist of our country, and demands of the government, professing the fairest principles of republicanism, to adopt some mode by which offenders may be dealt with, consistently with the principles strenuously maintained in most other respects, and agreeably to the nature and depravity of the crime. It is impossible, that every offence committed against the laws of Congress can be of the same atrocity; that all should suffer the same punishment is unjust; and yet there is no distinction drawn between the hardened and cruel pirate, and the unfortunate seaman, who, perhaps, was ignorant of offending the laws of his country, until it was too late. His doom, however, is sealed, by being one of the crew at the time the act was committed, and he is involved in the same punishment, unless the mercy of the President should interpose in his behalf.

The number of crimes committed in our country, and on the coasts, and the different character they assume in the perpetration, make it unjust that all should suffer alike. In the case of piracy, it is presumable that the whole crew are more or less guilty, and should be punished in some way agreeably to the decree of such guilt. The fact of being convicted, the sentence of the court being pronounced on the culprit, accompanied by the hope of meeting the mercy of the executive, furnish no terror to him or to others, but have a strong tendency to encourage them in the perpetration of like offences, under the deluded hopes of receiving the same lenity. I believe there is no mode so likely to check the course of vice, as a proportioned and certain punishment. National justice and safety to our commercial interests, demands an exemplary punishment. The principles of the government and humanity, forbid that punishment to be cruel and sanguinary, but to be apportioned to the magnitude of the crime, and the injury resulting to society by a repetition of the act.

This can only be accomplished by establishing a penitentiary mode of punishment, and abandoning the present inhuman and cruel system of taking the life of a fellow man for most offences, or of extending the power of pardoning to a demoralizing and baneful effect. All the punishments should

be inflicted with justice, reason, and humanity—but at the same time with a certainty, corresponding to the crime.

The advantages likely to result to the United States, independent of the equitable mode of correcting vice, are beyond any thing that can be alleged in favour of the individual states. It is my intention to notice them in the course of this discussion.

BECCARIA.

To the Editor of the N. Y. Evening Post.

Sir—Some sensible and judicious observations having recently appeared in your paper, relative to the too prevailing practice of pardoning criminals under sentence of death, I am induced to send you, for insertion, the following remarks from that very able and respectable work, *The North American Review*, published in Boston, relative to the treatment of convicts between the time of their condemnation and execution. After speaking of the severity of the criminal code of the laws in England, the writer proceeds:

"A different and opposite effect is produced by capital punishment in this country, much more creditable to our humanity, but not less injurious to the ultimate objects for which such punishment ought to be designed.

"During the thirty or sixty days quarantine, which is allowed a condemned malefactor to purify himself of his sins, the tremendous punishment that awaits him, and not the crime which requires it, occupies universal attention. The prisoner's cell is visited by the pious inhabitants of the neighbourhood, and his whole time is either one sabbath of prayer or a holiday of festivity. The means of luxurious indulgence are supplied to him beyond the requirement of nature, while many a dwelling of honest poverty, much more in want of such consolations, is left to suffer. With these ministrations of kindness, so bitter by contrast to those who have as much necessity for them and a better title, he is supported against the ignominy of public execution—the populace are taught in his example the doctrine of special grace working almost a miracle in reforming the sinner, who becomes a fit candidate for heaven from the traps of the gallows; the kiss of brotherly affection from the lips of a confessor, is his passport to bliss; he dies a martyr to the vindictive spirit of the laws, and the sympathy of the crowd around allots him in another world the rewards of virtue, by way of recompense for the penalty paid for his crimes in this. Such exhibitions destroy all the moral influence which the infliction of punishment is intended to produce. They bring the evil of capital execution without its advantages. Human life is destroyed and no good obtained by the sacrifice. Crime is considered of little importance if it can be so easily washed away. Law is brought into contempt, when its utmost penalty is exhausted on a being, who is held up to admiration as one purified from sin. The final scene is looked upon by a crowd of curious spectators with deep feelings of regret, rather as the martyrdom of an individual, than a penalty inflicted on a felon.

"We by no means intend to inculcate any lesson of cruelty. The criminal is still a man, and is to be treated as a fellow being. But he is a guilty man, accused, and condemned as such, and brought before the public, in that character, to pay the forfeit of his life. The attention of the spectators should be drawn to his offences, which cry aloud to heaven. The just and necessary connexion between guilt and suffering is the great lesson they are collected to learn. Whatever interrupts this connexion, whatever serves to produce a contrary or even a different impression, is foreign to the legitimate object and destroys its efficacy; and an excess of indulgence and sensibility toward the criminal, is real cruelty to those for whose moral good his life is exacted by the laws."

FROM THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

PRIVATEERING.

The motives for abolishing this practice are so many, that we hardly know where to begin in stating them. If it were not in itself unjust and immoral, we would urge upon nations, its inconsistency even with an enlightened policy; we would show that it never can be productive of any real advantage to either party in the war; we would call to mind the many seamen, who are thrown by it into prisons, and thus taken from the service of their country; we would speak of the difficulty of procuring sailors to man the fleets, or defend the coasts from invasion, when they are lured by the hope of plunder to embark in long and distant cruises; we would insist upon the discouragement of the naval service by the higher privileges which are granted to privateers; we would bring into view the loss of life, and the distress and poverty brought upon the families of seamen; we would ask for an instance, in which priva-

teers can be fairly said to have given essential aid in the prosecution of the war, or to have produced any serious impression upon the enemy's resources and strength; we would refer to the ill will and jealousy excited in neutral nations by the vexation to which their commerce is exposed from the eagerness of these marauders, and their unwillingness to return from a cruise, without some evidence of vigilance and success.—Lastly, we would leave it to history to decide, and challenge the experience of every nation, that has employed privateers in war, whether on the whole the national strength has not been impaired, and its resources diminished, by this expense of its treasure and force in the pursuit of pillage. Let these considerations be duly weighed by those who allow no rule for the conduct of nations, but the greater or less profit to themselves or injury to their enemies, which this conduct may seem likely to produce. Let them reflect upon the words of Franklin, and remember that his opinions and his remarks were founded on experience acquired in a war, in which perhaps, if ever, privateering was a powerful means of annoyance in the hands of one of the parties. With those who believe that the true interests of a nation can never be separated from a strict regard to religion and moral duty, there are other arguments of greater weight, than any which terminate in mere policy. With them it is enough to determine any action to be impolitic to know that it is unjust.

What judgment then must we pass upon privateering, if we test it by the rules of a sound morality? We ask not, what will be its fate if judged of by the dictates of high and honourable feeling, of that elevated morality, which rises far above the ordinary sense of right and wrong, as it is found in the mass of men; we ask not that it should be condemned or absolved by the sentence of a nice and scrupulous conscience: we are ready to put the question fairly to the grossest and least reflecting of mankind, be they only honest and unperverted; and we doubt not, that when brought to view the subject in its proper light, stripped of the cloak which law and custom may have lent to it, the most uncultivated conscience will pronounce it unjust and disgraceful to grow rich upon the spoils of the innocent, to gather by violence the fruits of another's industry. If upon the breaking out of a war, every debtor should be declared released from debts due to the subjects of the hostile state, would that man be thought to possess common honesty, who would profit by such an advantage? But how much more palpable is the justice of attacking, and bearing away as a prize the property of that enemy, not found in our own territory, but upon the ocean, the common highway of nations? Let it then be said, that the law of war has made it yours, and annulled the rights of its former possessor. This law is not the law of reason or conscience. It is a custom, which has grown out of the selfish and revengeful passions of men, and has been handed down from age to age, receiving now and then some mitigations, by which it has approached nearer to what is suited to a rational nature, but still it is founded in violence, and only one of the few remains of the right of the strongest. Grant, that war is not in itself unlawful; yet in a ruder age than the present, it was said by one, who admitted the lawfulness of war, "militare non est delictum, sed propter prædam, militare peccatum est." Of the justness of this distinction, who can doubt? It is the motive, which determines the character of the action; and what motive has the privateersman but plunder?

Miscellany.

From the New York Literary Journal.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

The importance of a profound acquaintance with the classical authors of antiquity, has been practically admitted by the most enlightened nations of the world. Accordingly, it has always been a cherished object in their systems of education, to bring the minds of their youth in contact with those master spirits of Greece and Rome, who by their genius, wisdom, eloquence and wit, have astonished, delighted and instructed succeeding ages. In this country, unfortunately, the same importance appears never to have been attached to classical learning. Although taught in most of our colleges, yet in many it is performed in so superficial and defective a manner, as eventually rather to frustrate than to promote its cultivation. There is one college, indeed, from which the study of languages is wholly excluded—I refer to *William and Mary's*, in Virginia. Under the original charter, granted by William and Mary, this institution had a professorship of Greek and Latin connected with it. After the American revolution, the college was organized on a new plan, and among other changes that were made, this professorship was abolished. The reason assigned by Mr. Jefferson for this sin-

gular measure is, that "the admission of learners of Latin and Greek, filled the college with children;" (Jefferson's Notes on Virginia, p. 250,) a reason which, instead of being any justification whatever, for the sacrifice of one of the highest essentials of scholarship, only serves to expose the wretched policy by which that seminary is governed.

In another of our colleges, it is understood that a knowledge of the French language is admitted as an equivalent for that of the Greek. With these exceptions, the study of the dead languages is enforced, I believe, throughout all our literary institutions; and it is generally considered as a necessary ingredient in completing the education of our youth. Notwithstanding all this, however, it is a lamentable fact, that to become deeply and extensively versed in classic lore is esteemed unnecessary, if not useless; and accordingly the whole current of authority, as well as popular prejudice, is directly hostile to the devotion of any thing like the time which is necessary for this purpose. The contracted nature of the course of classical studies, in most of our colleges, is a sufficient evidence of this fact, if other testimony were wanting.

It may not be uninteresting to concisely state some of the causes which have operated in influencing the public judgment on this subject. The most efficient cause, and the one to which most of the others may be referred, is this, that from the peculiar situation of this country, knowledge, in common with every thing else, is made subservient to the practical purposes of active life, and particularly to the acquisition of wealth. This is the object for which all our energies and enterprise are directed. The description which Horace gives of the avidity of the Romans, in the pursuit of wealth, is not less characteristic of ourselves—

"O cives, cives, quærenda pecunia *primum* est."

Hence it is, that knowledge is only valued in proportion as it supplies the means of accumulating property; and, accordingly, classical learning—which, from the intellectual refinement it inspires, is calculated to give its possessor a distaste for commercial speculations, and, perhaps, to disqualify him, in a great degree, from engaging in them at all—is so little regarded. Our merchants, although great numbers of them have enjoyed the benefits of a liberal education, seldom open an author of antiquity after they have received their diplomas; and our professional gentlemen, almost the only men of learning we have in the country, are so assiduously occupied in their various callings, that they have but little time to devote to other pursuits. The consequence is, as might be expected, that we can boast of but few *profound* classical scholars, and none but they are qualified to judge of the real value of classical literature. I do not wish to be understood as condemning altogether this enthusiasm in the struggle for wealth, which has just been noticed as characterizing our citizens; it rises necessarily out of the state of society in this country; nor can it be denied, that it even has been productive of much good. Its impulse has unquestionably imparted energy to our national character—it has diffused throughout the country an air of activity and a spirit of enterprise, the practical results of which are to be seen in the wide extension of our commerce, in the ingenuity of our population, and the intrepidity of our warriors. But whatever other benefits it may have produced, its effect upon our literature has been extremely deleterious.

Another cause, auxiliary to the one just noticed, may be found in the manner in which the languages are taught. The student has scarcely passed through the drudgery of acquiring the rudest elements of those languages, before he is arrested in his career, and hurried away to some other branch of instruction. He is, therefore, at once cut off from the pure pleasures arising from the contemplation of the ancient models of literary excellence. It is natural, that what is attended with so much toil and pain in the attainment, and unrewarded by any proportionate pleasure, should be thought scarcely deserving any attention. It is just this feeling which undoubtedly has a most powerful influence in lowering the estimation in which classical learning should be held.

The study of languages is, of necessity, at first a laborious process, and it requires no inconsiderable perseverance to accomplish it. If properly prosecuted, however, it will more than repay all the labour that may have been bestowed upon it. A mind, familiarized with the spirit of classic enthusiasm, will find itself susceptible of the noblest impulses; and while it explores those mines of intellectual wealth which have supplied the world with "bright images and illustrious thoughts," will feel itself borne along and animated by an influence as uncontrollable as it is elevating.

From the New York Statesman.

WESTERN FISHERIES.

Extract of a Letter, dated Canandaigua, June, 1820.

My dear Sir—"Of all minerals," said Bacon, "there is none like the fisheries." And I assure you, that these precious substances are to be found in great abundance in the western waters.

The ticamang, or white fish, are taken in great numbers about the falls of St. Mary's at the foot of lake Superior, particularly in the autumn, when that fish leaves the lakes and comes to the running and shallow waters to spawn. It weighs from four to sixteen pounds. So says Mackenzie, the Scotch traveller; and Mr. Rathbone, a very intelligent young gentleman of New York, has assured me, that at certain seasons, the Indians collect in vast multitudes at these falls to catch fish. Besides the white fish, there are the salmon trout, and several kinds of sturgeon and pike, and fresh water herring, and a number of other kinds.—Whether these fishes were originally marine animals, I cannot say. Fresh water fish will sometimes live in salt water, and vice versa. The lake of Lentini, in Italy, is stocked with a sea fish called the cefalo, a species of mullet, caught in the Mediterranean, and thrown into the fresh water of the lake, where they not only live, but increase greatly in size, and improve in flavour, and are a considerable article of luxury in the island. The lake has no communication with the sea, and is chiefly filled with rain water. Many fish run up from the ocean into fresh water to spawn, and perhaps some fresh water fish go to the ocean for the same purpose. The fishes of the lakes can, however, have the benefit of the salt water if they see fit, as those waters abound with salt springs. Ives informs us that at certain places in the Red Sea, divers go down several fathoms, and bring up fresh water, which is found in holes or little natural wells. In this case, the fresh water fish may live in the ocean. I have no doubt but that fishes can generally accommodate themselves to the fluid in which they swim, whether saline or fresh.

I find all the country supplied with a hard dried cod from New England, which must drain it of considerable money. I am somewhat surprised at this, as it is so replete with fine fishes of its own. West of lake Erie, the waters contain the common salmon in great numbers. The last year the fisheries in Sacket's Harbour and Chaumont's Bay produced the following:

Siswes, or lake herring, 4,000 barrels, at 7 dollars per barrel,	$28,000
White fish, 1200 barrels, at 9 dollars,	10,800
Salmon trout, 400 do. at 14 do.	5,600
	$44,400

The distance comprised is less than twenty miles, and the quantity is exclusive of the abundance distributed fresh in the country contiguous to the fishing grounds.

Judge Bates, one of the canal engineers, told me that 1000 barrels of eels are caught at the Oswego falls, and 500 of other fish, at 10 dollars a barrel, $15,000

As much at other places on that river, 15,000

$30,000

It is not too much to say, that the western fisheries, from the falls of St. Mary's to lake Champlain, can be made to produce a million of dollars annually.

Along the canal I have been regaled with the salmon and pike in great perfection. The salmo fario, or common trout, is visible in various places in the canal.

The science of ichthyology is pregnant with instruction and amusement. The migration of fishes, their occasional appearance and absence, their habits, &c. are subjects of interesting inquiry. The most remarkable circumstance in their natural history, is *their extreme longevity and rapid growth.* A salmon weighing 7¾ lbs. was taken February 7th, at Warrington (Eng.) and marked with scissors on the back, fin and tail, and turned into the river, and was again taken on the 17th of the following March, and was then found to weigh 17½ lbs. Some of the salmon (I mean the salmo salar of Linnæus), stay in the western lakes all the year. But these may perhaps be considered estrays. The history of this fish is involved in much obscurity, and so indeed is that of all erratic fish. Pennant says, that every species of salmon is found in the rivers of Kamtschatka. It is observed, that each shoal keep apart from others of different species, and frequently prefers a separate river, notwithstanding the mouths may be almost contiguous.—Every species of salmon dies in the same river or lake in which it is born, and to which it returns to spawn. In the third year, male and female consort together, and the latter deposits its spawn in a hole formed with its tail and fins in the sand, after which both sexes pine away and die. A fish of a year's growth continues near the place, guards the spawn, and returns to sea with the new born fry in November.

The salmon of Kamtschatka spawn but once in their lives; those of Siberia and Europe, the rivers of which are deep, and abound with insect food, are enabled to continue the first great command of nature frequently during the period of their existence. The common salmon of the western waters spawn, it is said, twice a year; also the brook trout. Linnæus enumerates between forty and fifty different species of the salmon. I have reason to believe that there are several in this country. Besides the common salmon, the salmon trout, and the brook trout, there are, I think, different species of trout in rivers and lakes, which are confounded under the general name of salmon trout and common trout. I have seen two kinds of the common trout, which are considered as of the same species, but which are specially distinct. One species generally inhabits streams, although they go into the shallows of lakes in the fall and conceal themselves in the grass. They have red spots on the body and square tails. The other kind have yellow spots and forked tails, and never leave the lakes. I am told that Oneida Lake is filled in July with a small substance called lake blossom, which is undoubtedly the exuviæ of insects. I have seen on the lake Baikal, the greatest lake of the old world, vast quantities of the skins of the onischus trachurus, a species of insect which abounds on the rocky shores of the lake, and is the food of the salmo lenok and stagnalis. The salmo salar and its congeners is probably attracted into these lakes by the vast quantities of insects. I have heard a great deal of the Oswego basse, or black basse; and it is said to be the most delicious fish of the west. It is of the perca genus. Yours,

HIBERNICUS.

VOYAGE ON THE LAKES.

Extract of a Letter from Capt. J. Rogers, of the steam boat Walk-in-the-Water, dated Black Rock, 29th ult.

"I arrived at this place from Mackinaw on the morning of the 27th inst. after a most delightful passage up and down, of 17 days, including four days we stopped at different places, and unlading our cargo at Mackinaw. We left Detroit, on our way up, on the 14th, and passed through lake and river St. Clair, and arrived at fort Gratiot at 7 o'clock same day. As we passed the fort, we were greeted with a national salute. St. Clair is a most beautiful river, of about 40 miles in length. We ascended the rapids, which run at the rate of five knots an hour, without difficulty, and in handsome style, and at daylight entered lake Huron, a very extensive sheet of water, and which affords a grand prospect to the eye in a clear morning. From thence to the island of Mackinaw we were out of sight of land most of the way. The sight of this island was very grateful to my feelings, and its wild appearance presents an interesting view to a stranger. It is situated in the strait of river Mackinaw, between lakes Huron and Michigan. Forts Holmes and Mackinaw, situated here, are composed of strong stockades, are neatly built, and exhibit a beautiful appearance from the water; the former is on the summit, near 350 feet, and the latter a little below, about 200 feet, from the surface of the water. The town is directly on the margin of the river. What added much to the novelty of the sight, was about 1300 Indians encamped in their wigwams, and in bark canoes at the water's edge. The island presents the greatest variety of scenery I ever saw in so small a compass; and from fort Holmes you have a complete view of lakes Huron and Michigan and the surrounding islands. The waters of these lakes are as transparent as air. We came to anchor in 18 feet water, and could see our cable and anchor as plain as if it had been on deck; indeed, at that depth of water, in a calm time, you could see a sixpenny piece on the bottom. The trout caught here exceed any I ever saw; they weigh from 5 to 60 lbs.; I bought one for 50 cents that weighed 30 lbs.; they are a beautiful fish, and as delicate as the best brook trout."

INDIANS.

Among the several letters which we have received, (says the Albany Statesman,) from our western correspondents, concerning the celebration of the 4th of July, on the borders of the Great Western Canal, we extract the following interesting remarks from one of them:

* * * * "Among other things which caught my attention, were the number of Indians who attended the celebration. I should think that there were between one and two hundred present—some of them dressed in the gaudy costume of their tribes. They stood gazing in mute admiration, at the new scenes continually bursting upon their astonished sight. Here they saw thousands of people, crowding in like a torrent from every quarter. The Great Western Canal, or in other words, a river of one hundred miles in length,

opened in a few months by the hands of the white men, and as far as their eyes could reach, covered with boats and skiffs; the standards and banners of the military, waving in triumph and glistening in the sun; the music of the several bands filling the fields with melody; the great guns shaking the hills with thunder; and the shouts and cheerings of many thousands—all these things were indeed calculated to astonish the poor Indians, and induce them to think that a kind of supernatural spirit was changing the face of that country which was lately a wilderness. I must confess, that the sight of these poor Indians, cast a cloud over my mind, and for a moment darkened the splendid scenery that imparted so much pleasure. Here, said I to myself, are the remnants of powerful tribes and nations, who once winged the arrow, pursued the monsters of the wilderness, and sung the songs of war over these very lands! Here they once met the foe, and trampled on their enemies, in the pride and exultation of victory! Here they once heard the thunders of the Great Spirit in his wrath, and shrunk from the lightnings of his eye! Here they once indulged in the bold and rapid eloquence of nature, as they met in their councils of war, and alone forgot the majesty of their species as they fell down to worship the God of their fathers! But here, alas! are all that remains. What a comment on the changes of the moral universe, what a picture of human instability. Their power is withered, and their numbers are scattered, as the winds of heaven dissipate the seeds in harvest time. Here they come, poor, weak, humbled and despised, to behold the rejoicings of the white men, in the bosom of their own country, where the marriage feast of their grandfathers may have been celebrated. All this may be right. The tide of civilization rolls on from the east to the west with ceaseless power, and civilized nations and savage tribes, must stand in silence and helplessness and behold its progress. No arm can be lifted to arrest it—no barrier interposed to stop its course. A few more years and even these vestiges of former tribes will be extinct, as their footsteps followed by the pressing pursuit of civilization, to the rocky mountains, and over the extended spine of the Andes, to the shore of the great western ocean. None will be left to wail over the desolations of revolution, and the very cabins in which they sharpened their hatchets or smoked the calumet, will be examined as the remains of antiquity, by the searching eye of the philosopher."

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

LOCUSTS AND WILD HONEY.

Messrs. Editors—The illustration of scripture passages, from facts in nature, or from the manners and customs of the inhabitants of the East, must be admitted to be a laudable undertaking. The judicious application of such facts is, perhaps, better calculated to suppress deism and infidelity, and to establish the truth of revelation, than any other means which the advocates of the divinity of the Bible could adopt. The extract you recently published from the review of the Christian Observer, relative to the food of John the Baptist, is however conceived to be less illustrative than the following facts, the publication of which in your paper would much oblige

A Bible Christian.

"Travellers, passing near Jordan, have found a kind of fruit or pulse, eaten by the monks there, which they call *locusts*. Sandys, in particular, describing the wilderness of John the Baptist, remarks that it abounds with trees called *locusts*. The Italians call the fruit of these trees *carobe;* the French call it *careages;* and the Dutch denominate it *Jaans broot*, that is, *John's bread*. It was very commonly eaten of old by the prophets, and by poor people, as may be seen from what Capellus advances on Prov. xvii. 1. See *Facts Authentic, in Science and Religion, No.* 4531.

"Dr. Clarke, in his Travels, relates, that a tree grows in Palestine, which is called the *locust tree*, and produces an eatable fruit. This fruit, which lies in little cells within a pod, is a pulp, or paste, somewhat like that of tamarinds, but smoother, and not so sweet. Such was a part of the food of John the Baptist, during his abode in the wilderness. It should be added, that in the stem of this locust tree, the wild bees still continue to deposit their honey. *Ibid. No.* 4532."

The following address to the editors is republished at the request of the trustees of the Muskingum Mining Company.—Although Mr. Conant informs us that it has been printed in many of the western papers, we never saw it till he enclosed it to us.

To the Editor of the National Recorder.

Sir—In one of your late papers appeared the following publication:

"*Extract of a Letter from Circleville, Ohio.*

"You need not believe one word of the several accounts you see about silver mines,

&c. lately said to be discovered in this state. They are gross impositions on an unsuspecting public. The ore pretended to have been dug, was a few silver dollars melted, and then filed up mixed with other things, with a view of inducing unsuspecting people to subscribe and pay for shares into the hands of arch and arrant thieves. They will ruin many, and then be off with their booty.

"The public ought to be cautioned against a set of swindlers, who, to give more colour to their pretended discoveries, have obtained a charter from the state for working their pretended silver mine below Zanesville on the Muskingum."

Now sir, I am directed by the trustees of the said company, to demand of you, the name of the author of the letter from which you made the extract alluded to.

While the people of this and the neighbouring states, confined themselves to merely ridiculing and laughing at what they considered our *credulity*, while they gave us no worse names than "fools and jackasses," we felt no disposition to disturb them, in the reveries of their fancied superiority; but when a person, from a part of the state in which we reside, from discovering the quietude with which we bore the lash of *burlesque*, published to the world falsehoods calculated to inspire the belief that we are *knaves* and *swindlers*, silence, on our part becomes a crime: and whoever this murderer of reputation may be, it becomes our duty to drag him from his *kennel*, and expose him to public ridicule and merited contempt.

Every statement in the article relating to the mining company is false. The original stockholders have, in no case, disposed of all their stock; neither could they be induced, by any reasonable offer, to do it.

Of the 100 shares, into which the stock was divided, but six are owned by any who were not original stockholders.

The company is rapidly progressing in sinking the shaft; and not a share is offered in market: the above named six shares having been disposed of at the anxious solicitations of the purchasers, and reluctantly parted with by those who had many shares, being induced to the act, from a desire to accommodate friends.

Some of the publications are a direct insult upon the character, honour and dignity of the legislature of this state for granting to the company its charter, while one other states that Mr. Samuel Chandler, a very respectable citizen of this place, and in whose land the mine was found, had sold his lands, at an enormous price, and fled the country. Mr. Chandler's character is unimpeachable; he has not disposed of a foot of his lands, neither have any of his family connexions of theirs, and the only consideration Mr. Chandler has for the lands leased the company, is stock in the same.

A number of respectable, industrious, and we may say, wealthy citizens of Muskingum and Washington counties, have united, under an act of incorporation, to excavate the earth to the depth of 133 feet in order to ascertain the extent of a vein of silver ore (discovered in boring for salt water,) the practicability of raising, and profit of working the same.

They ask *no persons* for funds; they offer their stock to *none;* they contract debts with *none*, and they disturb the peace of *none;* they raise (in advance) 1000 dollars upon each instalment, with which they honestly pay their labourers.

The trustees do not think the editor of the *National Recorder* inimical to the mining company; he has, no doubt, been imposed upon by the scribbler from *Circleville*, and we presume he will have no hesitation to give us his name, and be as ready to propagate truth, as he was a falsehood which he supposed to be a truth.

By direction of the trustees of the Muskingum Mining Company.

C. Conant, *Pres't.*

FROM ACKERMANN'S REPOSITORY.

THE PINCH OF SNUFF.

It is now many years, since a widow of about twenty, who had some business at Brussels, stopped for a short time at a hotel in that city: she dined at the *table d'hôte*, and generally spent a part of the evening in the public room. This youthful widow, whose name was Dorval, was precisely that sort of person whom the men all adore, and the women abuse: the former declared she was the loveliest, the most bewitching of creatures; the latter vowed she had not the smallest claim to beauty. Whatever were her claims, however, one thing is certain—the coldest hearts found her irresistible. Her slight but finely rounded form, though too *petite* for dignity, was a model of grace; her features could not boast the cold regularity which, in the critic's eye, constitutes beauty; but the brilliancy of her complexion, the varied expression of her speaking eyes, and the bewitching archness of her smile,

rendered her a dangerous object to a man of sensibility. She had been only a few days at the hotel, when an English gentleman chanced to dine at the public table; he was struck at the first glance with her charms, and not being well acquainted with foreign manners, he thought he might address himself rather freely to a lady whom he found at a *table d'hôte:* he complimented her; she replied with spirit, but with becoming reserve. The Englishman, whom we shall call Milborne, became every moment more fascinated: puzzled, however, by the apparent inconsistency in her situation and manners, he asked if she would accompany him to the theatre: she refused in a tone which showed plainly that she considered the proposal as an insult.—"Very well," cried Milborne, pulling out an elegant snuff-box, "then you shall take a pinch of snuff."—"I never take snuff, sir," cried the widow, turning up her pretty little nose with an air of ineffable disdain.

"So much the worse, madam; you lose one of the greatest pleasures in life. I have tried all sorts of enjoyments: one thing fatigued, another disgusted me; this pleasure brought repentance, and that satiety. At last, I determined to look out for something of which I should not tire. It suddenly struck me, that, in my fits of vexation and *ennui,* I had found occasional relief from a pinch of snuff; so I became a snuff-taker five years ago, and from that time to the present I have had no *ennui.* Come, madam, let me advise you to try my remedy for this distemper, with which we are all visited more or less."

"I have no occasion for it," replied the lady coldly: "I am not troubled with *ennui;* and if I were, I should think there are more rational means of dispelling it."

"Name them, madam, if you please."

"Reading, reflection, the offices of benevolence, the pleasures of society."

"Ah! madam, I have tried all that: reading set me to sleep; reflection made my head ache; benevolence, I own, is pretty well, but one cannot occupy oneself in that way from morning till night: as to the pleasures of society, I have been cheated by one half of my acquaintance, and laughed at by the other; I am, therefore, not very favourably disposed toward mankind. So you see, madam, I have nothing left for it, but to amuse myself in this way;" and opening his snuff-box, he took a pinch, and presented it to her.

Thoroughly provoked at what she considered unpardonable rudeness, she rose to leave the room. "Nay, madam," cried Milborne, starting up, "you must not go in anger."—"I am not angry, sir," cried the lady, trying to disengage her hand, which he had taken hold of.—"You forgive me, then?"—"Yes," replied she, but not in the most placid tone in the world.—"Very well, then; to prove that you dont bear malice, take a pinch of snuff."

At these words, the widow's patience and temper both forsook her; she burst into tears. Some of the gentlemen present advanced, and one of them, Comte de S. asked Milborne, in a haughty tone, what he meant by insulting the lady. The Englishman immediately took fire; he replied in a tone of defiance, which frightened Madame Dorval. She endeavoured to stifle the dispute, by protesting that she was not offended; but the gentlemen were both too hot-headed to be so easily pacified: they dissembled their resentment till the widow had left the room; but as soon as she did, the dispute was renewed. In a few minutes it rose to such a height, that a meeting was arranged for the following morning; and thus, for no greater cause than a lady's refusal to take a pinch of snuff, two men, who were not destitute either of common sense or principle, so far in their anger forgot both, as to be guilty of the folly and impiety of risking their own, and seeking each other's life.

Both, perhaps, repented when the challenge was given and accepted; but it was then, according to the notions of false honour so prevalent among mankind, too late. They retired to their respective apartments: Milborne wrote two or three letters, and began to pace his room, deeply engaged in ruminating on the probable event of the approaching meeting. Suddenly he fancied he smelt fire; he threw open the door of his chamber, and beheld the staircase enveloped in smoke. His first thought was for others: he ran to the different apartments, vociferating "Fire!" In a few moments every body in the house was alarmed; all hastened to escape; and Milborne, on going down stairs, found the greater part of the inmates assembled in the street before the door of the hotel. It was indeed time, for the flames were bursting out in every direction. The first person whom Milborne saw, was his antagonist. "My God!" cried the Englishman at sight of him, "where is madame?" They looked eagerly around; she was not to be seen.

"O heavens!" exclaimed the landlord, "she must be lost—see, her chamber is on fire."—"A ladder, quickly," cried Milborne.

—"We have not one; and if we had, it would be of no use; you would perish without being able to save her."—"I will try, however, cried Milborne; and breaking from his antagonist, who, shocked at the certain death to which he seemed devoting himself, caught hold of his arm, he rushed back into the flames.

"He will be lost!" exclaimed the bystanders. "No, no!" cried Comte de S. "Providence will not suffer him to perish;" and he hastened in search of a ladder, which he recollected to have seen in the morning at a little distance from the hotel. He was fortunate enough to find it: in a few moments it was reared against the window at which Milborne was seen with madame in his arms.

"God be praised!" cried the Englishman fervently, as he descended with his lovely burden, whom terror had deprived of her senses.—"God be praised!" was echoed by all present, with a feeling of mingled joy and terror, as they saw the floor of her apartment fall in with a terrible crash. Milborne had found her lying insensible on her bed: he wrapped her in a blanket, and so saved her from being burnt, but he was himself very much scorched. He delivered her to the care of the women; and it being by this time ascertained that no lives were lost, Milborne and the Comte hastened to find accommodation for her: they speedily succeeded, and returned to convey her to her new lodging. She was at that moment hardly capable of speaking, but she begged to see her preserver in the morning. The gentlemen then separated to take some repose, but not before they had shaken hands in amity.

The next morning Milborne waited upon the widow. "Ah! my preserver," cried she, starting up as he entered, and clasping both his hands in hers, "what shall I say to you? how can I thank you? how can I ever repay"——"Repay! Nonsense —take a pinch of snuff," cried Milborne, in a tone of affected gayety, which ill disguised the emotion the beautiful widow's fervent gratitude had called forth. My readers will believe that this time she did not refuse. "Dont you find it excellent?" cried Milborne.—"Yes, excellent indeed," replied she, when the fit of sneezing which it occasioned had subsided.—"I thought," said Milborne, in a tone of triumph, "that you could not fail to like it, if once you could be prevailed upon to taste it: but this is nothing; I have with me samples of all the different kinds of snuff that are used, and some which I have myself introduced, and had compounded under my own direction: you shall try them all."

The widow would, perhaps, rather have been excused from giving this proof of her gratitude, but what could she deny to her deliverer? We do not know how far she became a connoisseur in snuff, for in a very few days Milborne found that his *penchant* for it began to be superseded by another *penchant;* in short, the widow's fine eyes caused certain uneasy sensations, which even his favourite amusement of snuff-taking could not dissipate. One day, while he was sitting with her, he suddenly fell into a fit of abstraction, and his box, which he held open in his hand, dropped upon the floor. "How unlucky! you have spilled all your snuff," cried Madame Dorval, stooping to pick up the box.—"Never mind," said Milborne, gently detaining her hand, as she presented it to him: "snuff is a good thing, but it is not a panacea for every care."

"Indeed!" cried the widow archly; "and pray when did you discover that?"

"Not till to-day: I have taken three times my usual quantity, in order to put you out of my head; but I can't. I see clearly there is only one way to manage that matter satisfactorily: I must either marry you or run away from you. Now, my dear madame, which shall I do?"

"Run away, to be sure," cried the widow: but what signifies what a woman says when her eyes contradict her tongue? Milborne trusted to the former, and he was right: he pressed his suit with ardour; mutual explanations took place. The Englishman was a rich, whimsical, but noble-minded being; the widow was virtuous and well born, but comparatively poor. No obstacles opposed an union which they mutually desired. In the course of two years after it had taken place, Milborne was the happy father of two lovely children, and their infantine caresses and the attentions of his beautiful wife occupied him so completely, that he no longer felt *ennui*, and we are assured that his snuff-box was discarded.

An article from Milan announces some interesting discoveries in literature. It is said that Mr. Peyron, professor of the Oriental languages in the university of Turin, has lately discovered some hitherto unknown MSS. of Cicero and of St. Augustine.

The Hon. Daniel Webster will deliver an address before the "Pilgrim Society,"

on the 22d of December next, at Plymouth, being the completion of the second century since the first permanent settlement of New England by our pilgrim forefathers.

[*Bost. Intel.*

Poetry.

FROM THE NEWARK CENTINEL.

A Wife to her Husband in Adversity.

Thou, thou wert ever only dear
In joy or sorrow, peace or danger;
Then start not, love! 'tis but a tear,
Then start not at a trembling stranger:
I weep not for the wealth we had,
Or fashion's idle splendour fleeted;
No, no—'tis that thou lookest sad—
'Tis for thy sighs so oft repeated!

Thou dear one, smile, as once thou smil'd,
If but for me thy tears are flowing;
Some little cot—lone, simple, wild,
Where nameless flowers around are growing,
Shall shine a palace proud to me,
If thou art there to point my duty—
Delightful scene! while bless'd by thee,
Each morn shall breathe of peace and beauty.

Tho' cheeks that glow'd and hearts that vow'd
Are gone, when fortune fails to cheer thee;
Yet love! far happier from the crowd,
One heart, unchang'd, is beating near thee!
Tho' all those sunshine friends are flown,
Who throng'd our blooming summer bower,
Oh! say thou art not all alone—
I'll share, I'll cheer this adverse hour!

Nay, sigh not thus, tho' thou dost see
Tears wrap my cheek in pensive sadness,
'Tis ecstasy to mourn with thee,
Bid thee yet hope for days of gladness.
Wealth is not bliss—look brightly round,
Recal past scenes of peace and pleasure,
When on Passaic's banks we found
Love, simple love, life's truest treasure!

How oft, at twilight's holy calm,
Beside that dear, secluded river,
We drank the valley breeze's balm;
Was there one roving wish? oh! never.
Then was the maple, trembling green,
With some lone fountain mildly sporting,
Sweet emblem of the happy scene,
Serenely bright and ever courting!

And love, true love, doth yet remain,
With thy fond wife's unalter'd bosom;
Nor wilt thou feel regret or pain,
While heaven leaves one fadeless blossom.
Oh! thou art lovelier far to me—
Far lovelier in this hour of sorrow;
For I can think of only thee—
Wish for thy sake a brighter morrow!

S——, *of New Jersey.*

May, 1820.

Record.

SPLENDID WORK.

We have had an opportunity to examine the first number of a work, publishing in this country, entitled, "Picturesque Views of American Scenery, by Joshua Shaw." This number contains six prints, in folio, 14 inches by 10; the engravings are by Hill, an artist of distinguished talents and reputation, which are accompanied by explanations, and the whole are executed in the most elegant manner. The subjects of those that we have seen are:

1. Sepulchre of Gen. Washington, at Mount Vernon.
2. View near the falls of Schuylkill, immediately after a thunder storm.
3. View of the spot where Gen. Ross fell, near Baltimore, in the attack upon that city by the British during the late war; exhibiting that officer on horseback at the place where he was killed.
4. Falls of St. Antony, on the Mississippi.
5. View above the falls of the Schuylkill.
6. Jones' Falls, near Baltimore.

We have no hesitation in saying that these views are executed in a manner highly creditable to the author and engraver; and as it is the intention of Mr. Shaw to visit all parts of our country, for the purpose of selecting subjects for the remainder of his work, which is intended to occupy six numbers of equal size with the first, that he may exhibit specimens of the most striking, majestic and sublime scenery which it contains, it is impossible that the work, when finished, should not be viewed with high gratification by every person of taste, and every friend to the fine arts.

Mr. Shaw is a gentleman of skill and talents in his profession. He was the bearer of Mr. West's celebrated picture of "Christ healing the Sick," from England to Philadelphia. Since his residence here, he has been elected president of the Society of Arts in that city; and as evidence of his talents and character, it may be mentioned, that he has been commissioned by the secretary of war, with the approbation of the President of the United States, to join the party who are about to explore the country up the Missouri river, for the purpose of enabling him to delineate the most interesting sketches of scenery which he may there discover.

We understand that Mr. Shaw has met with liberal patronage at the south; we cordially hope he will find equal encouragement at the north. We consider the work as an honour to our country, and hope the publisher may be handsomely rewarded. [*N. Y. Daily Adv.*

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS IN NORTH CAROLINA.

Raleigh, July 14.

The Board of Internal Improvements met at Fayetteville on the 6th instant. Their object in meeting at that place was to examine the works carried on by the Cape Fear Navigation Company in and near Fayetteville. His excellency the governor, attended by the other members of the board, and several other gentlemen, examined the line of canal for about six miles. Since the work has been carried on under the direction of Mr. Fulton, the principal engineer, it has progressed with more economy, and is much better done. Nearly one mile of the canal is yet to be made: when this is done, and locks put in, boats ascending or descending the river can lock up into the canal and lie alongside the warehouses

in Fayetteville. It is estimated that this canal, when completed, will, independent of its convenience, save annually to the town of Fayetteville, more than 25,000 dollars, in lessening the price of transportation between the town and the river. The governor, and other members of the board, have viewed the works of the company at Buckhorn, and a detailed report of the progress and condition of the works of the company, at all points, will be laid before the next general assembly. This company has now the prospect of soon completing their work below, and of making a commodious navigation up the river to the town of Haywood.

Since the last meeting of the board, the principal engineer has been engaged on the coast, and on Tar river. We are glad to understand that he thinks it practicable to remove the Swash at Ocracock, and to deepen the shoal below Washington. During the month of February last, the board directed the principal engineer to submit to them a report on the placing of buoys along the coast. This report was submitted, and copies of it forwarded to our senators and representatives in Congress, and by them laid before the proper department. We are gratified to find that this subject has been attended to by the general government. Captain Elliot, who is now making a survey of our coast, under a resolution of Congress, has received instructions from the secretary at war to place buoys at all the inlets along the coast where they may be wanted.

As to the Tar river, the engineer having at different times viewed it, from Washington up to Louisburgh, thinks, that at a very moderate expense, it can be improved for a safe and commodious navigation; and it is understood that the company which has been incorporated for this river, will shortly commence their work below Louisburgh.

Circulars have been addressed to the several companies, requesting them to forward to the board an account of the progress and condition of their works, the state of their funds, how far they are adequate to complete their contemplated improvements, &c. that the board may be enabled to make a general report on this subject to the next general assembly.

The board have received the report of the commissioners appointed to run and lay out the road through the Cherokee country. Contracts will be forthwith made, for cutting, clearing, and marking this road; and persons who may wish to buy the lands which will shortly be offered for sale in that quarter, will have an opportunity of seeing the country without much inconvenience.

The board have received from the President of the United States, for the use of this state, Mr. Hageau's splendid work on the canal which connects the Rhine with the Meuse. The superb atlas which belongs to this work was forwarded by general Stokes, one of our senators in Congress. [*Register.*

NAVIGATION OF SAVANNAH RIVER.

Columbia, S. C. July 4.

We learn that the president of the Board of Public Works met the commissioners on the part of Georgia, last week, and that arrangements were made for commencing the work between Petersburgh and Augusta, immediately. [*Nat. Int.*

We take the following article from the Washington City Gazette of Tuesday evening last. It is some compensation for the disgust and horror which the scene described is calculated to excite, that one paper of Washington, at least, has the courage and humanity to report and brand such enormities. [*Nat. Gaz.*

"A most barbarous scene was exhibited in our streets, a short time past, and witnessed by hundreds of our citizens:—A negro, with his hands tied, and fastened to the tail of a gig, was dragged along the Pennsylvania Avenue, like a dog, through the dirt and scorching sun, whilst his owner, going at a smart trot, was lolling in the chair at his ease. Can our civil authorities look on and suffer such an inhuman wretch to escape with impunity? Or is humanity and sympathy for our fellow beings selfishly confined to our own colour only?"

FROM THE DETROIT GAZETTE.

We have (through the politeness of captain Conner, of the schooner Monroe) been favoured with a letter from a gentleman who is with governor Cass, which contains important information. It is dated, "Saut of St. Mary, June 17th, 1820." We give the following extracts with pleasure.

"A treaty of cession at that place was yesterday concluded by the governor, with some of the chiefs of the Chippewa nation. The absolute necessity of this cession, to the preservation of peace and friendship with the upper nations, renders it highly important and advantageous to our government.

"The facilities which this point has always afforded to men not well disposed towards the American government, to enter its territory, and disturb its tranquillity, by poisoning the minds of the Indians with insidious counsels, and with presents, have been too long and advantageously made use of. By establishing a post at this place, these facilities are entirely destroyed. This point may be considered the true key to the upper country. We shall guard the only channel of communication—protect our traders—give confidence to those savages favourably disposed, and intimidate and chastise men who have heretofore not been affected by a distant force. For these reasons, the Saut of St. Mary must be considered a station quite as important as any outpost now established; and it is presumed government will soon realize every advantage expected from the occupation of this position.

"The lands around the Saut, appear to be susceptible of cultivation. I should think the soil well adapted to wheat and corn.

"The white fish taken in these rapids are delicious. Great quantities are caught daily; they are the chief food of the inhabitants.

"News was received yesterday of a peace having been concluded between the Sioux and Chippewa nations. It is hoped this information is correct.

"We shall leave the Saut this afternoon for Fond du Lac, at which place we may expect to arrive in about eighteen or twenty days."

The notorious David Lewis died of the wounds received by him in his apprehension.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

At a meeting of the directors of the public schools of the third section first school district of Pennsylvania, held on the 18th inst. the following report of the committee appointed to make arrangements for the celebration of the 4th of July, was read, and ordered to be printed, signed by the president and secretary.

The Committee appointed to make arrangements to celebrate the 4th of July, by the children in the public schools, in section No. 3,—report:

That they made application to the minister and acting committee of the Ebenezer church, for the use of their building in Christian street, on that day, who were kind enough to grant their request without hesitation.

The children, in number about 900, were assembled in their respective schools at eight o'clock in the morning, and proceeded with their teachers to the church, where a large number of their parents and others had assembled. The service was opened, by the senior classes singing a hymn, written by Mr. M'Gowan, one of the teachers, and, considering the little opportunity they had had for previous practice, with very considerable correctness. After a prayer, delivered by the Rev. Mr. Smith, with great fervency, and appropriate allusion to the day, and circumstances occasioning our assemblage, the declaration of independence was recited by JOHN BLACK, one of the scholars, and not ten years of age, with so much judgment, as surprised and delighted the audience! It is the opinion of your committee, that there are few children of his age in this city, let their circumstances and opportunities of education have been what they may, that could have done better. Dr. J. B. Sutherland, a member of the board, then delivered an address, embracing the advantages of a good education, its influence upon society, the importance of a good example to children by their parents, the necessity of a punctual attendance at school, and other sensible observations upon the relative duties of parents and children. A second hymn was then sung, composed for the occasion by the Rev. Dr. E. S. Ely. The services of the morning were concluded by prayer, and the benediction by the Rev. gentleman who officiated on the occasion. After which, the children were taken to the respective schools, and discharged by their teachers.

The committee have the hope, that this method of celebrating the anniversary of our national independence, will be attended with the most salutary consequences; that besides its keeping the children out of the public streets, in which examples of intemperance and temptation for imitation are exhibited, it will likewise produce an emulation among them, a desire to be distinguished in the manner the youth before mentioned was. The attention and pride of their parents will also be excited, and induce a more strict attendance of their children at school.

The committee desire to express their thanks to the ladies and gentlemen, who were good enough to attend to the instruction of the children in their singing on that day, and the few preceding, on which they were practising.

BENJAMIN MARTIN,
GEO. C. SNYDER,
GEO. M'LEOD,
} Committee.

J. RAYBOLD, President.

GEO. M'LEOD, Secretary.

Southwark, July 18, 1820.

The queen of England arrived in London on the 6th June. She was received in Dover, and in all the towns she passed in her progress to the metropolis, with much enthusiastic joy. The London populace joined in the welcome, and after remaining a long time before alderman Wood's house, in which her majesty was, they dispersed at his request, and broke the windows of lords Castlereagh and Sidmouth. A strong party of guards was stationed in front of Carlton house for two nights.

The king, on her arrival, transmitted a message to both houses, communicating certain papers respecting the conduct of her majesty since her departure from the kingdom, which he recommends to their immediate and serious consideration.

The queen sent a message to the House of Commons, stating that she has been induced to return to England, in consequence of the measures pursued against her honour and peace by secret agents abroad, and lately sanctioned by the conduct of the government at home. She wishes the investigation for which the king has called, but desires that it may be open, fearing nothing but a secret trial. There is said to be some probability of a private arrangement of the controversy.

London, June 5.

Death of the Right Hon. Henry Grattan.—It is with much regret we announce this painful but not unexpected intelligence. This venerable and distinguished statesman expired yesterday evening, between six and seven, at his residence, No. 68, Baker street. His disorder latterly had assumed dropsical symptoms, and on Saturday morning signs of mortification began to appear in his legs. We understand, that with his latest breath, he expressed a wish that he could be conveyed to the House of Commons, that he might die like the immortal Chatham.

The Parisian opposition newspapers present a curious appearance at present; in every column almost, you see a hiatus of ten lines or more, wherever the censors have objected to the article. Thus the journals are like fragments of political essays, and the reader is left to fill up twenty blank spaces in every sheet, according to his own imagination.

☞ We have been accidentally obliged to print this number on paper of an inferior quality.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, August 5, 1820. No. 6.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of a resolution of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, passed June 20, 1820, authorizing a committee, consisting of the President and Curators, to publish such communications to the society as they may think proper—it was resolved by the committee, that the following be printed in the National Recorder, published by Littell & Henry, at Philadelphia.

By order of the Curators.

I. C. JONES.

ON THE CORNPLANTER.

Read 16th November, 1819.

Lampeter Township, Lancaster Co. (Penn.) Eleventh Mo. 8th, 1819.

Sir—Having invented and brought into use a machine called a *Cornplanter*, for the purpose of planting Indian corn, which has been found by the experience of my neighbours and myself for two years past, to be extremely useful in facilitating the planting of corn in an improved manner, I herewith forward a model (not made to scale) for the use of members of the society and others who may choose to have them constructed, not desiring any further remuneration for my invention than the satisfaction arising from agriculturists generally having the liberty of constructing and using it free of any expense for exclusive privilege. The description is as follows: viz.

The sled is made of 2¼ inch plank, five feet long and one foot deep; the runners placed two feet apart in the clear; the cutter before, which is for dividing a sod or any hard substance, should sink 3½ inches below the bottom of the runners; the opener or furrow maker is 3 inches wide and sinks two inches below the bottom of the runners; the shoe, out of which the grain issues, should be somewhat shorter than the opener and the aperture in it about an inch in diameter; the two pins or harrow teeth behind to sink one inch below the bottom of the runners; the clearing block, which will break the clods and level the ground, is made of plank, and may be one foot in length on each side, and should be fixed so loose as to accommodate itself in some measure to obstructions—this is to move on the same plain with the bottom of the runners; the wheel, two feet in diameter, and the pins four inches long, making the whole diameter two feet eight inches; the cylinder under the hopper should be three and a half or four inches long, and four inches in diameter, having four notches to receive four or five grains each, the notches to be constructed after the form of the model; the cylinder should have iron gudgeons, neatly turned, to run in metal; the hopper twenty inches long, and ten inches deep.

It is to be understood, that previous to the machine being used, the ground should be ploughed and harrowed as usual, but not furrowed out, the machine performing the whole business of furrowing, planting, covering and levelling at the same time, and with quite as much rapidity as the ground is furrowed out in the common way: ten acres have been planted in one day by my machine, without any previous furrowing. The advantages of its use are, that the corn is regularly planted at equal distances, without any previous laying out of the ground; it is all covered of an equal depth and with fine mould, the clods being pushed out of the way, and the fine earth

passing the sides of the furrower falling on it; it is believed that more corn has been raised in proportion on a given quantity of ground, by its being thus regularly planted and evenly covered. There is a strap or rope to draw up the hopper and prevent the grain passing out, when turning at the head landing. The machine being on runners, it is more steady in its movements and more manageable than if it were on wheels. ISAAC CONRAD.

ROBERTS VAUX, *Secretary of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society.*

Political Economy.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

ON INTERFERENCE WITH INDUSTRY.

From Say's Traité d'Economie Politique.

When the attention of governments has been directed to agricultural industry, their interposition has been almost always favourable. The impossibility of directing the various processes of agriculture; the great number of people who are employed, who are scattered over the whole surface of a country, and in a multitude of separate undertakings, from the greatest farms to the smallest village gardens; the trifling value of agricultural products in proportion to their bulk;—all these circumstances, which are in the nature of things, have happily rendered it impossible to carry into effect such regulations as would have shackled industry. Governments that have been inspired by a wish for public good, have accordingly done nothing more than distribute prizes and encouragements, and spread abroad instructions, which have often greatly contributed to the progress of this art. The veterinary school of Alfort, the experimental farm of Rambouillet, and the introduction of merinos, have been real benefits to France, the extension and perfection of which she owes to the solicitude of the various administrations, which, amidst political storms, have governed France.

When the government keeps up the means of communication, protects the harvest, and punishes culpable negligence, such as the neglect to clear the trees of caterpillars, it produces a good, analogous to that which is effected by the maintenance of order and the protection of property, which are so favourable, or rather so indispensable, to production.*

The forest regulations in France, which in many of their details at least are perhaps necessary to the maintenance of this kind of production, appear in other respects to introduce difficulties that discourage this culture.

[Some remarks on interference with manufactures, from the same author, will appear in the next number.]

Record.

Cincinnati (Ohio), July 12.

Bank U. States v. *Whipple & Washburne.*

The above cause came to trial a few days ago, before the city court, holden by the mayor and two aldermen. The case was regularly presented to the jury by the plaintiff's counsel, and though there were several points made, by the defendants' counsel, in the course of the proceeding; yet they were reserved, and the testimony considered as conclusive of the claim. It was admitted by the plaintiff's counsel, that the note was discounted at the office established at this place. The defendants' counsel insisted to the jury, that the Bank of the United States had no power to discount promissory notes—that the bank was the mere creature of the act which created it, and possessed no other powers than such as were *expressly* granted. That it could take nothing by implication, however strong; and though the charter confers a right upon the corporation generally to do and execute all and singular the acts, matters, and things which to them it shall or may appertain to do, &c. and although it prohibits them to receive more than six per cent. upon its *loans* or *discounts*, yet as there is no *express* authority either to *loan* or *discount*, such loans are illegal, and the security void.

The mayor charged the jury that the Bank of the United States had no power under its charter to discount promissory notes, and the jury gave a verdict for the defendants.

St. Louis, (M. T.) July 5.

The convention have adopted some important provisions for the purpose of preventing such work in Missouri as is now going on in many parts of the union for "*stopping the law.*" Constitutional restrictions will be placed on the legislative authority, to prevent it from interfering with the collection of debts according to the contract of parties. All this is right: Missouri is now *solvent*, and let her continue so.

* In the ancient canton of Berne, every proprietor was bound during the season of caterpillars, to furnish a certain number of bushels of these insects, in proportion to the extent of his possessions. The rich purchased them from some poor people, who made it a business to take them, and succeeded so well that the country was no longer exposed to their ravages. But as a proof how difficult it is even for good governments to interfere usefully with production, I have been assured that this paternal care excited a singular species of fraud, and that by way of lake Leman sacks of caterpillars were imported from Savoy.

A cargo of North Carolina wheat was sold in this city on the 31st ult. at 82 cents per bushel.

The common council of London have presented an address of condolence and congratulation to the queen, to which she returned an answer, thanking them for their address, "which was both loyal to the king and respectful to herself." It appears to be the general wish of the respectable part of the people, that an accommodation should take place, and it is thought that the dispute will be privately arranged.

London, June 15.

Last night sir James Mackintosh moved for a new writ for Dublin, in the room of the late right honourable H. Grattan. The eloquent praises of the deceased were echoed by lord Castlereagh, Mr. Wilberforce, and assented to by all sides of the house. Sir James concluded his speech on the subject, with the following lines:

"Ne'er to the tombs where all the mighty rest,
Since their foundation, came a nobler guest;
Nor e'er was to the bowers of bliss conveyed,
A fairer spirit or more welcome shade."

On this occasion, Mr. Becher said he should not have risen, but for the purpose of presenting a document, which had been communicated to him, as the dying exhortation of Mr. Grattan to his Catholic countrymen, and which he asked leave to read in his place. The document is to the following purport:

"I wished to go to the House of Commons to testify with my last breath my opinions on the question of Catholic emancipation; but I cannot. The hand of death is on me. I am not afraid of death; but I fear for my country, if the object which I have so long cherished should not be accomplished. I wish the Catholics to be relieved from the oppression under which they have long been labouring, because I have always considered them to be loyal men, worthy to be placed upon a footing with the other members of the community, and to be allowed to worship God according to their own consciences. I wish the question to be settled, because I believe it to be essential to the permanent tranquillity and happiness of the country, which are in fact identified with it. The Catholics have behaved well under many trials. If their hopes should be again disappointed, I most earnestly deprecate any coalition on their part with the advocates of universal suffrage and annual parliaments. Were the friends of these doctrines to be successful in their object, nothing could ensue but the subversion of the constitution, and the establishment of the wildest democracy. There is one thing more. The Catholics must cautiously avoid becoming parties to any dissentions that may unfortunately prevail in the royal family."

Canadian Affairs.—We learn that the late election for members of parliament, for Upper Canada, has terminated in the almost unanimous choice of persons who are the political friends of Mr. Gourlay. It would appear by this, that the popular voice in Canada is opposed to the administration.

Mr. Ferguson, who was fined and imprisoned for publishing some of Mr. Gourlay's writings, was recently released from confinement, and has charge of the Niagara Spectator; and declares in a public address, that the Spectator shall prove *a great terror to little tyrants.*

HAVANA.

Charleston, (S. C.) July 18.

From our attentive correspondent at Havana, we have received papers of that place to the 8th inst. inclusive. We perceive by them, that the enthusiasm of the people in favour of the government of the Cortes, had not in the least abated. The captain general of Cuba had issued an order enjoining the observance of Sunday, the 9th, as a day of general rejoicing and festivity by the people; and authorizing them to indulge in all kinds of sport and recreation that would not militate against good order and decorum—that being the day on which the Cortes were to assemble in Spain, and when Ferdinand was to renew, in solemn form, his oath of fidelity to the new political constitution.

The election for members of the legislative Junta of the island, under the new constitution, was also to take place on the 9th and 10th. The island had been divided for this purpose into five election districts, which were to send 105 representatives; the most important furnishing 31, the three next each 21, and the fifth 11 members. The polls for this election were to be opened at eighty-six different places, in order to afford to the voters every facility to the exercise of the right of suffrage. At a short distance from each poll, a sufficient number of militia was to be stationed to preserve order, and prevent persons not qualified to vote from interfering; and also to prevent the approach of carriages to the poll, to the obstruction of the votes.

No armed person was to be allowed to vote; and each militia man, before approaching the poll for that purpose, was required to lay aside his arms.

AFRICA.

The British are indefatigable in their attempts to explore the interior of Africa. The following extract from a letter, written by a gentleman in London, to the editors of the New York Commercial Advertiser, gives us some information relative to an expedition now on that hazardous service:

Africa.—By the latest information, it seems that the expedition for exploring Africa, under the command of major Gray, on whom the direction devolved after the death of major Peddie, has returned to Galam, on the Senegal, after a most harassing journey through the country of the Foolado, in which the party were insulted, plundered, attacked, and it is said some of them were killed. Mr. Docherd, the surgeon attached to the expedition, had, with a few individuals, however, proceeded onwards, and been so far successful as to reach, without difficulty, Yamina, on the river Niger. At this place, Mr.

Docherd was obliged to remain until he received permission from the king of Sego, to proceed; and after waiting nearly six months, he was advised to retire higher up the river to Baminakoo, in Bambara—from whence accounts have been received from him, dated 12 months since, expressing his hopes of procuring the necessary permission, although many untoward circumstances operated against this expectation. The king of Sego was then at war with his neighbours, on the eastern side of his territory, his minister had died about the time he heard of Mr. Docherd's arrival. A few days afterwards, his treasurer and receiver of customs departed this life, and to add to that catalogue of misfortunes, the chief of Baminakoo also died just after he reached that place. These fatal events tended to confirm the notions the blacks entertain of the evil influence which the presence of the whites have over their countrymen, but particularly their rulers, whom they are supposed to have the power of destroying by secret spells and charms. In the present instance they were more convinced of this baneful influence, on recollecting that several of their chiefs who had dealings with Mungo Park, died the same year he passed through their kingdom. Mr. Docherd had invariably received the kindest treatment, both at Yamina, and Barminakoo; and on complaining of delay, was assured it was entirely owing to the custom of the country; as making ambassador's wait, was only meant to show the king's dignity, that it might not be supposed he was in any hurry to get rid of his guests. Markets, it seems, were held twice every week, at Saud Sauding and Yamina, where provisions were reasonable, and every sort of European merchandize in great demand, especially articles of finery for the dresses of the females, who are fond of shewy colours. Among other things, were Manchester prints, in great abundance, which seemed to meet a ready sale, and which must have been conveyed by the caravans from Morocco, across the Great Desert.

Lieut. Lyon, of the royal navy, who was the friend and traveller of the late Mr. Ritchie, is appointed to succeed that gentleman as British vice consul at Mouvrouk, the capital of Fezzan, in Africa, for the purpose of facilitating the attempting discoveries.

By the Magnet, which left Cape Gast on the 23d March, we learn that Mr. Dupuis had proceeded to Coornapie, to enter upon his functions as consul at the court of the king of Ashantee, and had arrived in safety, and been well received. As Mr. Dupuis is well acquainted with the Moorish language, and as it is known that several Moors reside at Coornusie, who have visited at Tombuctoo, we may now look to receive early and important information upon the subject of that country.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Memoirs on the War of the French in Spain, by M. de Rocca, officer of Hussars, and knight of the order of the Legion of Honour. Translated from the second Paris edition, 8vo.—Price $1.50 in boards. T. Dobson & Son.

A complete set of improved Lunar Tables, for clearing the effect of Refraction in Lunar Distances, &c. &c. By Samuel P. Watkins, pp. 28—$1.50. T. Dobson & Son.

MARRIED.

At Nantucket, on the 13th July, at the Friends' meeting-house, Thomas Earle, of the firm of Earle and Barker, of this city, to Mary N. Hussey, of Nantucket.

DIED

In Plymouth, Chenango county (N. Y.), on the 3d July, Mr. Nash. While hoeing in the field, he felt something sting his foot, and looking down, observed a small spider running off it. He continued working that day and part of the following; the pain of the wound increasing, and red streaks reaching as high as the knee, in which were hard bunches of a purple cast. The gangrene had already taken place. A physician was sent for, and Mr. N. was bled, which threw the poison over the whole system, and he survived only a few minutes.

In Sadbury township, Chester county, on Friday, the 21st July, Mr. John Trevilia, aged about 50 years. The death of the deceased was sudden and singular. In August last he was stung by a bee on the head; in the course of an hour after he received the wound, he complained of being unwell, and was immediately seized with a fit of apoplexy; but by the assistance of medical aid, was restored to health again. On the day of his death, he went out a fishing, with his hook and line, in his usual good health; after his return home in the evening, he went out to an apple tree to gather some apples; while there, he received a wound on the head from a bee. He immediately became alarmed, and told his wife he hoped it would not have the same effect on him that it had before; but alas, he soon began to complain of feeling very unwell; sat down on his bed, asked his wife to give him some water; he then lay down on the bed, and in less than five minutes was a corpse.

Miscellany.

FROM BLACKWOOD'S EDINBURGH MAGAZINE.

THE PENITENT SON.

Death brings to those who have been long dreading its approach, by the bedside of one tenderly beloved, a calm in which nature feels most gracious relief from the load of sorrow. While we yet hear the faint murmurs of the unexpired breath, and see the dim light of the enclosed eyes—we watch in agony all the slightest movements of the sufferer, and to save the life of friend or of parent, we ourselves would most gladly die. All the love of which our hearts are capable, belongs then but to one dearest object; and things, which, perhaps a few days before were prized as the most delightful of earth's enjoyments, seem, at that awful crisis, unworthy even of the affections of a child. The blow is struck, and the sick bed is a bier. But God suffers not the souls of them who believe to fall into an abyss of despair. The being, whom for so many long years we have loved and reverenced,

"Has past through nature to eternity."

and the survivers are left behind in mournful resignation to the mysterious decree.

Life and death walk through this world, hand in hand. Young, old, kind, cruel, wise, foolish, good and wicked—all at last patiently submit to one inexorable law. At all times, and in all places, there are the watchings, and weepings, and wailings, of hearts severed or about to sever. Yet look over landscape or city—and though sorrow, and sickness, and death, be in the groves and woods, and in solitary places among the hills—among the streets and the squares, and the magnificent dwellings of princes; yet the great glad spirit of life is triumphant, and there seems no abiding place for the dreams of decay.

Sweet lonesome cottage of the Hazel Glen: Even now is the merry month of May passing brightly over thy broomy braes; and while the linnet sings on earth, the lark replies to him

from heaven. The lambs are playing in the sunshine over all thy very verdant knolls, and infant shepherd and shepherdess are joining in their glee. Scarcely is there a cloud in the soft cerulean sky, save where a gentle mist ascends above the dark green sycamore, in whose shade that solitary dwelling sleeps! This little world is filled to the brink with happines—for grief would be ashamed to sigh within the still enclosure of these pastoral hills.

Three little months ago, and, in that cottage, we stood together—son, daughter, grandchild, pastor, and friend—by the death bed of the Elder. In thought, we are still standing there; and that night of death returns upon me, not dark and gloomy, but soft, calm, and mournful, like the face of heaven just tinged with moonlight, and here and there a solitary star.

The head of the old man lay on its pillow stiller than in any breathing sleep, and there was a paleness on his face, that told the heart would beat no more. We stood motionless as in a picture, and looked speechlessly on each other's countenance. "My grandfather has fallen asleep," said the loving boy, in a low voice, unconsciously using, in his simplicity, that sublime scriptural expression for death. The mother, unable to withhold her sobs, took her child by his little hand, and was leading him away, when at once the dreadful truth fell upon him, and he knew that he was never again to say his prayers by the old man's knees. "Oh let me kiss him—once only—before they bury him in the cold earth;" and in a moment, the golden curls of the child were mixed with the gray hairs of the lifeless shadow. No terror had the cold lips for him; and closely did he lay his cheek so smooth, to those deep wrinkles, on which seemed yet to dwell a last loving smile. The father of the boy gazed piteously upon him, and said unto himself, "Alas! he hath no love to spare for me, who have so long forgotten him. Jamie—my little Jamie!" cried he now aloud, "thou wouldst not weep so were I to die—thou wouldst not kiss so thy own father's lips, if they were, as these are, colder and whiter than the clay!" The child heard well, even where he lay on the bosom of that corpse, the tremulous voice of his father; and nature stirring strongly within his heart towards him of whose blood he was framed, he lifted up his sullied face from the unbeating bosom, and, gently stealing himself away from the bed, rushed into his parent's arms, and lay there delivered up to all the perfect love of childhood's forgiving heart. All his father's frowns were forgotten—his sullen looks—his stern words—his menaces, that had so often struck terror to his wondering soul—his indifference—his scorn, and his cruelty. He remembered only his smiles, and the gentlest sounds of his voice; and happy now, as in heaven, to feel himself no more neglected or spurned, but folded, as in former sweetest days, unto the yearning bosom of his own kind father, the child could bear to turn his eyes from that blessed embrace, towards the dead old man, whom, an hour ago, he had looked on as his only guardian on earth besides God, and whose gray hairs he had even as an orphan, twined round his very heart. "I do not ask thee, Jamie, to forget thy grandfather—no, we two will often speak of him, sitting together by the ingle, or on the hillside—but I beseech thee not to let all thy love be buried with him in the grave—but to keep all that thou canst for thy wretched father." Sighs, sobs, tears, kisses, and embraces, were all the loving child's reply. A deep and divine joy had been restored to him, over whose loss often had his pining childhood wept. The beauty of his father's face revived. It smiled graciously upon him, as it did of old, when he was wont to totter after him to the sheepfold, and to pull primroses beneath his loving eye, from the mossy banks of the little sparkling burn! Scarcely could the child believe in such a blessed change. But the kisses fell fast on his brow, and when he thought that the accompanying tears were shed by his own father, for the unkindness sometimes shown to his child, he could not contain those silent self-upbraidings, but with thicker sobs, blessed him by that awful name, and promised to love him beyond even him who was now lying dead before their eyes. "I will walk along with the funeral, and see my grandfather buried, in our own burial place, near where the tent stands at the sacrament—Yes I will walk, my father, by your side, and hold one of the strings of the coffin—and if you will only promise to love me forever as you now do, and used always to do long ago, I will strive to think of my grandfather without weeping, aye, without shedding one single tear"—and here the child, unaware of the full tenderness of his own guileless heart, burst out into an uncontrollable flood of grief. The mother, happy in her sore affliction, to see her darling boy again taken so lovingly to her husband's heart, looked towards them with a faint smile, and then, with a beaming countenance, towards the expired saint; for she felt that his dying words had restored the sanctities of nature to her earthly dwelling. With gentle hand, she beckoned the pastor and myself to follow her—and conducted us away from the death bed, into a little parlour, in which burned a cheerful fire, and a small table was spread with a cloth whiter than the snow. "You will stay in our cottage all night—and we shall all meet together again before the hour of rest;" and so saying, she calmly withdrew.

There was no disorder, or disarray in the room in which we now sat. Though sickness had been in the house, no domestic duties had been neglected. In this room the patriarch had, every evening for forty years, said family prayers—and the dust had not been allowed to gather there, though sickness had kept him from the quiet nook in which he had so long delighted. The servant, with sorrowful but composed features, brought to us our simple meal, which the pastor blessed, not without a pathetic allusion to him who had been removed—and another more touching still, to them who had survived him. That simple but most fervent aspiration seemed to breathe an air of comfort through the house that was desolate—but a deep melancholy yet reigned over the hush; and the inside of the cottage, now that its ancient honour was gone, felt forlorn as its outside would have done, had the sycamore, that gave it shade and shelter, been felled to the earth.

We had sat by ourselves for about two hours, when the matron again appeared; not as when we had first seen her, wearied, worn out, and careless of herself, but calm in her demeanour,

and with her raiment changed, serene and beautiful in the composure of her faith. With a soft voice she asked us to come with her again to the room where her father lay—and thither we followed her in silence.

The body of the old man had been laid out by the same loving hands that had so tenderly ministered to all his wants and wishes, when alive. The shroud in which he was now wrapped had been in the cottage for many a long year, and white as it was, even as the undriven snow, scarcely was it whiter than the cheeks and the locks now bound in its peaceful folds. To the eyes of my childhood the Elder's face had sometimes seemed, even in its benignity, too austere for my careless thoughts, impressed as it ever was with an habitual holiness. But all such austerity, if indeed it had been ever there, death had now removed from that silent countenance. His last moments had been blessed by his son's contrition—his daughter's love—his grandchild's pity—his pastor's prayers. And the profound peace which his parting spirit had enjoyed, left an expression on his placid features, consolatory and sublime.

The penitent son was sitting at the bedside. We all took our places near him, and for a while remained silent, with eyes fixed on that countenance from which beamed the best memories of earth, and the loftiest hopes of heaven.

"Hear," said the humbled man, "how the thaw is bringing down the loosened torrents from the hills! even so is my soul flowing within me!" "Aye, and it will flow till its waters are once more pure and bright as a summer stream," said the pastor with a benign voice. "But art thou sure that my father's forgiveness was perfect?" "Yes, William, it was perfect. Not on his death bed only, when love relents towards all objects glimmering away from our mortal eyes, did the old man take thee into his heart; but William, not a day, no, not an hour, has passed over these silver hairs, in which thy father did not forgive thee, love thee, pray for thee unto God and thy Saviour. It was but last Sabbath that we stood together by thy mother's grave in the kirk yard, after divine worship, when all the congregation had dispersed. He held his eyes on that tomb stone, and said, 'O! Heavenly Father, when, through the merits of the Redeemer, we all meet again a family in heaven, remember thou, O Lord, my poor lost William; let these drops plead for him, wrung out from his old father's broken heart!'—The big tears, William, plashed like the drops of a thunder shower on the tomb stone—and at the time, thy father's face was whiter than ashes—but a divine assurance came upon his tribulation; and as we walked together from the burial place, there was a happy smile about his faded eye, and he whispered unto me, 'my boy has been led astray, but God will not forget that he was once the prop and pillar of his father's house. One hour's sincere repentance will yet wipe away all his transgressions.' When we parted, he was, I know it, perfectly happy—and happy, no doubt, he continued until he died. William! many a pang hast thou sent to thy father's heart; but believe thou this, that thou madest amends for them all at the hour of his dissolution. Look, the smile of joy at thy deliverance, is yet upon his face."

The son took his hands from before his eyes—gazed on the celestial expression of his father's countenance—and his soul was satisfied.

"Alas! alas!" he said in a humble voice, "what is reason, such poor imperfect miserable reason as mine, to deal with the dreadful mysteries of God! Never since I forsook my Bible, has the very earth ceased to shake and tremble beneath my feet. Never, since I spurned its aid, have I understood one single thought of my own bewildered heart! Hope, truth, faith, peace and virtue, all at once deserted me together. I began to think of myself as of the beasts that perish; my better feelings were a reproach or a riddle to me, and I believed in my perplexity that my soul was of the dust. Yes! Alice, I believed that thou too wert to perish utterly, thou and all thy sweet babies, like flowers that the cattle hoofs tread into the mire, and that neither thou nor they were ever, in your beauty and your innocence, to see the face of the Being who created you!"

Wild words seemed these to that high souled woman, who for years had borne with undiminished, nay, augmented affection, the heaviest of all afflictions, that of a husband's alienated heart, and had taught her children the precepts and doctrines of that religion which he in his delusion had abandoned. A sense of the fearful danger he had now escaped, and of the fearful wickedness, brought from the bottom of her heart all the unextinguishable love that had lain there through years of sorrow—and she went up to him and wept upon his bosom. "Oh! say it not, that one so kind as thou, could ever believe that I and my little ones would never see their Maker—they who were baptized in thine own arms, William, by that pious man, in the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost!" Yes! my Alice! I feared so once—but the dismal dream is gone. I felt as if the ground on which this our own sweet cottage stands, had been undermined by some fiend of darkness—and as if it were to sink down out of sight with all its thatched roof so beautiful—its cooing pigeons—its murmuring bee-hives—and its blooming garden. I thought of the generations of my forefathers that had died in the Hazel Glen—and they seemed to me like so many shadows vainly following each other along the hills. My heart was disquieted within me; for the faith of my childhood was entertwined with all my affections—with all my love for the dead and the living—for thee, Alice, and our children, who do all resemble thee both in beauty and in innocence, whether at thy bosom, or tottering along the green sward, and playing with the daisies in the sun. Such thoughts were indeed woven through my heart, and they could not be torn thence but by a heavy hand. Alice! the sight of thee and them drove me mad; for what sight so insupportable to one who has no hope in futurity, as the smiles and tears of them he loves in his distraction!"

He who spake was no common man—no common man had been his father. And he gave vent to his thoughts and feelings in a strain of impassioned eloquence, which, though above the level of ordinary speech, may not unfrequently be heard in the cottage of the Scottish peasant, when the discourse is of death and of judgment. All the while that he was speaking,

the wife kept her streaming eyes close to his face—the gray haired pastor beheld him with solemn looks—the mortal remains of his father lay before him—and, as he paused, there rose the sound of the snow swollen flood.

"I call the Almighty to witness," said the agitated man, rising from his seat, and pacing long the floor, "that these hands are yet unstained by crime. But oh! how much longer might they have so continued! Why need the unbeliever care for human life? What signifies the spilling of a few drops of worthless blood? Be the grave once thought to be the final doom of all—and what then is the meaning of the word crime? Desperate and murderous thoughts assailed me by myself in solitude. I had reasoned myself, as I thought, out of my belief in revelation—and all those feelings, by which alone faith is possible, at the same time died away in my heart, leaving it a prey to the wretchedness and cruelty of infidelity. Shapes came and tempted me in the moors—with eyes and voices like, but unlike the eyes and voices of men. One had a dagger in his hand—and though it said nothing, its dreadful face incited me to do some murder. I saw it in the sunlight—for it was the very middle of the day—and I was sitting by myself on the wall of the old sheepfold, looking down in an agony, on the Hazel Glen, where I was born, and where I had once been so happy. It gave me the dagger—and laughed as it disappeared. I saw—and felt the dagger distinctly for some minutes in my hand—but it seemed to fall down among the heather—and large blots of blood were on my fingers. An icy shivering came over me, though it was a sunny day and without a cloud—and I strove to think that a brain fever had been upon me. I lay for two days and nights on the hill—and more than once I saw my children playing on the green beside the waterfall, and rose to go down to put them to death—but a figure in white—it might be thou, Alice, or an angel, seemed to rise out of the stream, and quietly to drive the children towards the cottage, as thou wouldst a few tottering lambs."

During all this terrible confession, the speaker moved up and down the room—as we are told of the footsteps of men in the condemned cell, heard pacing to and fro during the night preceding the execution. "Lay not such dreadful thoughts to the charge of thy soul," said his wife, now greatly alarmed—"Hunger and thirst, and the rays of the sun, and the dews of night, had indeed driven thee into a rueful fever—and God knows that the best of men are often like demons in a disease!" The pastor, who had not dared to interrupt him during the height of his passion, now besought him to dismiss from his mind all such grievous recollections—and was just about to address himself to prayer, when an interruption took place most pitiable and affecting.

The door, at which no footstep had been heard, slowly and softly opened, and in glided a little ghost, with ashy face and open eyes, folded in a sheet, and sobbing as it came along. It was no other than that loving child walking in its sleep; and dreaming of its grandfather. Not one of us had power to move. On feet that seemed, in the cautiousness of affection, scarcely to touch the floor, he went up to the bed side, and kneeling down, held up his little hands, palm to palm, and said a little prayer of his own, for the life of him who was lying dead within the touch of his balmy breath. He then climbed up into the bed, and laid himself down, as he had been wont to do, by the old man's side.

"Never," said the pastor, "saw I a love like this"—and he joined his sobs, to those that were fast rising from us all at this insupportable sight. "Oh! if my blessed child should awake," said his mother, "and find himself beside a corpse so cold, he will lose his senses—I must indeed separate him from his dead grandfather." Gently did she disengage his little hands from the shrouded breast, and bore him into the midst of us in her arms. His face became less deadly white—his eyes less glazedly fixed—and, drawing a long, deep, complaining sigh, he at last slowly awoke, and looked bewilderedly, first on his mother's face, and then on the other figures sitting in silence by the uncertain lamp-light. "Come my sweet Jamie, to thine own bed," said his weeping mother. The husband followed in his love—and at midnight the pastor and myself retired to rest—at which hour, every room in the cottage seemed as still as that wherein lay all that remained of the patriarch and the elder.

* * * * *

It was on May day that, along with my venerable friend, I again visited the cottage of the Hazel Glen. A week of gentle and sunny rain had just passed over the scenery; and brought all its loveliness into life. I could scarcely believe that so short a time ago the whiteness of winter had shrouded the verdant solitude. Here and there, indeed, a patch of snow lay still unmelted, where so lately the deep wreaths had been drifted by the storm. The hum of insects even was not unheard, and through the glitter of the stream the trout was seen leaping at its gaudy prey, as they went sailing down the pools with their expanded wings. The whole glen was filled with a mingled spirit of pleasure and of pensiveness.

As we approached the old sycamore, we heard behind us the sound of footsteps, and that beautiful boy, whom we had so loved in his affliction, came up to us, with a smiling face, and with his satchel over his shoulder. He was returning from school, for the afternoon was a half holiday, and his face was the picture of joy and innocence. A sudden recollection assailed his heart, as soon as he heard our voices, and it would have been easy to have changed his smiles into tears. But we rejoiced to see how benignly nature had assuaged his grief, and that there was now nothing in memory, which he could not bear to think of, even among the pauses of his pastimes. He led the way happily and proudly, and we entered once more the cottage of the Hazel Glen.

The simple meal was on the table, and the husband was in the act of asking a blessing, with a fervent voice. When he ceased, he and his wife rose to bid us welcome, and there was in their calm and quiet manner an assurance that they were happy. The children flew with laughter to meet their brother, in spite of the presence of strangers, and we soon set all down together at the cheerful board. In the calm of the evening, husband and wife walked with us

down the glen, as we returned to the manse—nor did we fear to speak of that solemn night, during which, so happy a change had been wrought in a sinner's heart. We parted in the twilight, and on looking back at the Hazel Glen, we beheld a large beautiful star shining right over the cottage. EREMUS.

MR. GRATTAN.

The death of Mr. Grattan is an event over which it becomes Ireland to mourn. He was her truest patriot as well as her brightest ornament. There was not more to admire in his extraordinary eloquence and abundant knowledge, than in the natural elevation of his sentiments, the ingenuousness of his character, and the simplicity of his demeanour. He had, in his political life, both courage and conduct in an eminent degree. Perhaps he should not have accepted a seat in the British parliament; but he entered that body not to shine and lead, but to serve Ireland when the opportunity might be afforded. He seldom enjoyed this opportunity, and he knew and felt the futility of most of his endeavours. We had the good fortune to hear one of the most elaborate of his speeches in the House of Commons, in favour of Catholic emancipation, and have never heard a finer, nobler oration.

His manner, as a speaker, was not engaging; it was even awkward and uncouth: his voice had neither volume nor music: but the peculiarity of his tone and gesture; the animation of his countenance; the fervour of his spirit; the connected force of his reasoning; the wisdom of his maxims, and the brilliant antithesis which almost every one of his sentences involved, fixed the attention of his hearers, and left them under impressions with respect to his subject and his powers, such as the eloquence of no other man produced. Every thing was peculiar both in the exhibition of the orator, and in the pleasure and admiration which he excited. He was an anxious, fond observer of the struggle of these United States for independence; he never concealed his wishes for their success; he has expressed to us in the warmest terms his delight in their advances to greatness, and his confidence in the moral triumph of their institutions. As Americans we are disposed to honour his memory. It has not, we perceive, been neglected by the English. He has been buried in Westminster Abbey, by the side of Charles Fox, whom he equalled in the generosity of his nature and surpassed in the rectitude of both his political and private career. [*Nat. Gaz.*

GERMAN EMIGRATION TO AMERICA.

In the last number of the North American Review, is a notice of "The German in America," a book published in Germany for the information of persons desirous of emigrating to the United States. Some of the lesser German powers, instead of endeavouring to force their subjects to remain in the country, benevolently and wisely determined to give them such information as might facilitate their journey, and place them in a more favourable situation on their arrival. To this end, M. de Fürstenwärther, half brother of the baron Von Gagern, representative of the German possessions of the king of the Netherlands, at the German diet, was sent here to acquire such a knowledge of the country as might be useful to his countrymen.

He took up his residence (as we happen to know,) in the house of a French taylor, recently arrived in this city, and who does not speak English. M. de F. himself is said not to have understood a word of the language, and yet in seventeen days after his arrival he makes the following complaint:

'I am just beginning to be known, and am obliged to put up with taking many a fruitless step. For you are not to imagine that a very great interest is felt here in my mission. This does not lie in the American character.'

The result of his observations is generally such as to encourage those who desire to emigrate. He thinks American ships ought to be preferred for the passage, because "they sail quicker, the treatment is better, and the responsibility of the captains is greater." We all know that it is usual for those who have not money to pay their passage, to bind themselves to serve for a term of years to some one who will pay it for them; and of this there has been much misrepresentation in some parts of Germany, to make the people believe that they were sold as slaves on their arrival.

"So far from looking upon this indenture as a hardship, our author expresses his opinion that it is a benefit to the needy emigrant, and says, that many even of those who pay their passage in Holland, bind themselves, in like manner, on their arrival here, for the sake of being immediately provided for in a strange land—learning the language by going of necessity into an American family, and laying up in the purchase money a little capital for future support. Our author adds, that the treatment of the emigrants while in service is so kind

and good, that just complaints are oftener made by the masters, that their servants run away, than by the servants that they are ill treated. Among the classes of emigrants most likely to be employed, our author enumerates masons, carpenters, cabinetmakers, waggoners, coopers, smiths, shoemakers, tailors, and bakers; and as least likely to find employment, all those whose trades are connected with the arts of luxury. Persons of both sexes, from fourteen to twenty years of age, are most sought for, 'and it is a great folly,' says our judicious author, 'when women of eighty years old wander over, as happened in one instance last summer.' The greater part of the German emigrants remain in Pennsylvania, from which without their consent they cannot be carried. Our author however informs us, that he saw a letter from forty such persons, who had entered into indentures in Ohio, and who were contented with their treatment and condition. The following observation will show the correct and discriminating character of our author's observations."

'*A great part* of the population of the United States consists of blacks, *especially* in the southern states. The German agrees but poorly with them. He is regarded by them, with envy and jealousy. It is degrading to the German name and character, to have the German stand on a similar footing with them. *The natural cunning of the negro;* his superior *dexterity*, and *fluency* in English, give him too great an advantage over the simple, good natured German peasant. He considers himself [the negro] as of a higher nature, and looks down upon the poor German. The latter is confounded in treatment with the blacks, nay is often treated worse.' p. 55.

"The emigration from Germany to Pennsylvania began very early. In the time of Penn, Germantown was founded by a colony of emigrants from Griesheim in the Palatinate. In 1717 the emigration was so great, that the governor of the province expressed his apprehensions of the evil consequences, which might result from having too many foreigners contiguous to each other, or, on the other hand, too many scattered separately among the Indians. In 1754, there landed 5000 emigrants in Philadelphia; but we apprehend our author to have been misled by his authorities, when he supposes that half the population of Pennsylvania is German or of German descent.

"The German language is fast disappearing, particularly in the large towns, and no person is allowed to sit on a jury in Pennsylvania, who cannot understand English. According to our author, the children of German parents are commonly ashamed of the country and language of their fathers, so that in the third generation, at the present day, the traces of their origin disappear. This disinclination is greater in the higher than in the lower orders of society, and in this respect, says M. de Fürstenwärther, the German Society at Philadelphia is unworthy at least of its name, as a greater part of its members are desirous of having its transactions in English."

M. de F. concludes his report as follows:

'With such advantages, on the part of the United States, which every impartial man will recognise with me, and with all the facility, particularly of the material life, I cannot conceal some defects and dark sides. In this country there is no idea, nay not a distant suspicion, of a higher and finer existence, at least on this earth. There is a want of every thing which can adorn and ennoble it, of every variety of better enjoyment and entertainment. Coarse materialism and interest are the character and leading principle of the inhabitants:—A want of sociality, contemptible pride, reserve, and coarseness, discover themselves in the multitude, and repel the European of education and feeling. Such a one will of course feel himself at first extremely unhappy and solitary in this country; it cannot please him. Although there be much in Europe, that he cannot and ought not praise, comparisons, which he will have daily occasion to make, will force from him the silent or open confession that still much is better there. If the Americans are justly proud of their civil freedom, and of their freedom in thinking, speaking, and printing, and in the social life, they still know not that higher freedom of the soul which is to be found only in Europe, *and I say it boldly, most abundantly in Germany.* With all their freedom, they are still slaves of their narrow views, of their ignorance of every thing but what is local and practical, and of their national prejudices.

'Such are the impressions of all on their arrival in this country, such are the coinciding feelings and judgments of all, even long after their arrival. By degrees only do they get used to the country, after they have formed to themselves a sphere of their own, or after their gradually awakening pride as free citizens extinguishes the recollections of the advantages of their native land.' pp. 90, 91.

"Did we not fear that our comment had already outrun the importance of the text, we should hint at the state of things in Germany, disclosed by this prodigious emigration. We passed, not a year ago, through the kingdom of Wurtemberg, and along the banks of the Rhine, the countries from which the great march of emigration proceeds. All Europe does not afford a finer and more lovely land: the highest cultivation, the finest forests, the richest products, the best roads, every thing which would seem to belong to a happy country: all

those advantages which we suppose M. de Fürstenwärther means by his 'material existence,' and in which we really wish we were as well off as he describes us. Yet it is from those delightful regions that every one, who can ride or walk away, from children at the breast to women eighty years old, is flying as from a pestilence, not tempted to stay by that fine freedom of the soul, of which our author will have it there is so much in Germany. Now we apprehend that it is precisely those fine moral comforts which are wanting 'in Europe, nay, we say it boldly, in Germany most of all.' In some parts of Europe there is more wealth, in most there is more artificial refinement, and more learning, than in America; but in none is there much freedom either of soul or body; most in England, but not enough there. The tyranny is of a different kind in different places. In one it is the disproportionate wealth of the aristocracy, as in England; and in one it is the unbalanced despotism of the government, as in Germany: but in all it is freedom, liberty, confidence, equality of rights, when there is equality of merit, which are wanted: a want which is poorly supplied by pictures and statues, by fleets and armies, nay, by fine poetry and prose; though these are all excellent in their way."

From the North American Review, No. 28.

EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

The expediency of cultivating the intellect of man is pretty well settled at the present day, and it seems difficult to imagine why that of woman should be neglected. If it have similar powers and equal strength, it is as deserving of care, and will repay care as well; if it be weaker and narrower, it needs the more to be strengthened, enlarged, and disciplined. If the purposes of society and of life would be promoted by the establishment of domestic slavery, then every spark of intellectual light in the female Helot should be carefully extinguished; just as birds in a cage are blinded, that they may not look upon the forests and fields, the blue heavens and the green earth, and long to be abroad upon the air, till melancholy should stop their song. But religion and policy alike revolt at this. Man's best happiness, like charity, begins at home, and, like that, is apt to stay there; and home is sure to be just what the wife may make it. Now if it were true that a woman, who can do any thing besides making a pudding or mending a stocking, does these necessary things less willingly and well, than one who can do nothing else; if it were true, as certainly it is not, that a wife submits to conjugal authority, just in proportion as she is ignorant and uncultivated, how can the great purpose of marriage, the mutual and reciprocal improvement of the moral and intellectual natures of the sexes, be promoted by a union upon such unequal terms; and what must we think of a husband "assez orgueilleusement modeste," to wish from his wife an unquestioning obedience, instead of a sympathy of thought, and taste, and feeling? It is sometimes urged that, if a woman's mind be much enlarged, and her taste refined, she is apt to think differently of the duties of life, to require different pleasures from the rest of her sex; that her feelings leave the channels which the institutions of society have marked for them, and run riot, and bring her usefulness and happiness into danger. Now the plain answer to this is, that these evils happen, not because her reason was cultivated, but because it was not cultivated well; and because the taste and intellect of women generally do not receive due culture.

From the same.

LETTERS OF HUTCHINSON AND OLIVER.

We call the attention of our readers to Dr. Hosack's biographical memoir, wholly on account of the anecdote contained in it of the famous letters of Hutchinson and Oliver. We give the anecdote as it stands in Dr. Hosack's words.

"We now come to an event, memorable by the commotion it excited at the time, and by the magnitude of the consequences which have since arisen from it: I refer to the discovery of the celebrated letters of Hutchinson and Oliver: and here I beg leave to call your notice to a few of the earlier circumstances of the late revolutionary war, in order to communicate a fact hitherto unrevealed.

"Although the disturbances which originated in the famous stamp act, had nearly subsided with the repeal of that noxious measure, and returning sentiments of friendship were every day becoming more manifest, yet new obstacles to a permanent reconciliation appeared in the attempts of the British administration, to render certain officers of the provincial government dependant on the crown alone. This measure of the court gave particular offence to the colony of Massachusetts, from the peculiarly obnoxious character of their governor, who, at times impelled by avarice and by the love of dominion, had, in furtherance of his schemes of self aggrandizement, uniformly manifested the most

determined support to the views and measures of the mother country.

"However discreditable to his reputation it may be, certain it is, that governor Hutchinson was secretly labouring to subvert the chartered rights of the colony, whose interests he had sworn to protect. His agency in procuring the passage of the stamp act was more than suspected, and apparently upon reasonable grounds.

"The illustrious Franklin, who had recently rendered himself conspicuous by his examination before a committee of the British privy council, and who at this period resided in London, as agent for the colonies of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, obtained possession, through the agency of a *third* person, of certain letters written by governor Hutchinson; secretary Oliver, afterwards lieutenant governor; Charles Paxton, esq. and other servants of the crown, [Thomas Moffat, Robert Auchmuty, Nathaniel Rogers, George Rome]; and sent them from Boston to Thomas Whately, esq. member of parliament, and a private secretary of lord Grenville."

After an account of Franklin's appearance before the privy council, and Mr. Wedderburne's insolent abuse of him, he adds:

"But it is time that I should declare to you, that this *third person* from whom Dr. Franklin received these famous letters, (and permit me to add that this is the first time the fact has been publicly disclosed,) was Dr. Hugh Williamson.

"I have before stated his mission in behalf of the academy. Dr. Williamson had now arrived in London. Feeling a lively interest in the momentous questions then agitated, and suspecting that a clandestine correspondence, hostile to the interests of the colonies, was carried on between Hutchinson and certain leading members of the British cabinet, he determined to ascertain the truth by a bold experiment.

"He had learned that governor Hutchinson's letters were deposited in an office different from that in which they ought regularly to have been placed; and having understood that there was little exactness in the transaction of the business of that office; (it is believed that it was the office of a particular department of the treasury;) he immediately repaired to it, and addressed himself to the chief clerk, not finding the principal within: assuming the demeanour of official importance, he peremptorily stated that he had come for the last letters that had been received from governor Hutchinson and Mr. Oliver, noticing the office in which they ought regularly to have been placed. Without a question being asked, the letters were delivered. The clerk, doubtless, supposed him to be an authorized person from some other public office. Dr. Williamson immediately carried them to Dr. Franklin, and the next day left London for Holland.

"I received this important fact from a gentleman of high respectability, now living; with whom, as the companion and friend of his early days, Dr. Williamson had entrusted the secret."

From the National Intelligencer, July 18.

Gentlemen—I was pleased to see in your paper of to-day, the critique of your Hibernian correspondent on the imperfections of the American *dialect;* for, although it seems to have been indited in the spirit of indignant retort, its tendency is to render us cautious not to be too lavish of our ridicule against the errors of others, until our own attainments shall have placed us above its reach; nor to be too forward in extracting the mote from our brother's eye before we are assured of the immaculacy of our own.

"Veniam damus petimusque vicissim."

Nay, Messrs. Editors, I am so far from feeling angry towards your correspondent for his plainness of speech, that I would most heartly unite with him in collecting and setting forth those improprieties of language which have crept into use in the different sections of our country; and, if you think it would not interfere with his object, or be without its use, I wish you would publish the following notes, taken down in my pocket book during a journey through a neighbouring state. Being entertained at some places with shrewd and sarcastic remarks on the manners and language of the people of New England, and at others, in which the place of my nativity was ascertained, complimented by being assured that I spoke remarkably well, and, "for aught they could see, *very much as they did*," I could not help thinking to myself, "we at the north want improvement enough, God knows; but *we* are sensible we need it, which is a great step towards its attainment." A motive of curiosity prompted me to minute down, as I heard them, in the course of my ride, those words and phrases, in common use, which seemed to be provincial, of which, in a short time, I had between twenty and thirty on my list. The following are among the principal:

Mighty and *right.*—These are used nearly synonymously, and instead of adverbs of degree, such as *very, quite, exceedingly,* &c, thus, 'this is a *mighty* good horse;' 'we have a *mighty* dry season;' 'it is a *right* good day for hares.' On addressing to a gentcel lady an inquiry to-day after the health of a friend, I was told, that he was not well; 'he has been complaining *right much* of the head ache.' My ear has not yet become sufficiently provincial to distinguish decidedly between this use of *mighty* and of *right;* but, if there be any, I imagine that *mighty* is a stronger term than *right,* and that these words correspond nearly with the *English* adverbs *extremely* and *very.* Thus, a dog is a *right* sagacious animal, but the beaver is *mighty* sagacious.

Expect and *reckon.*—These words are every moment heard in conversation, for *conjecture* or *suppose. Expect* properly relates to the future; it implies mere anticipation. It is here vaguely applied to the present and past; thus, 'I *expect*

he set out yesterday;' 'I *expect* he is there;' 'I *reckon* the session has commenced;' 'he will come, I *reckon*.' This corresponds with the so much ridiculed habit of *guessing* among the Yankees, with the difference, that *reckon* signifies a formal calculation, generally in arithmetic; whereas *guess* is not incorrectly used for vague conjecture. However, what renders both ridiculous is, that they are heard so incessantly that the use of them has become a *trick*—of the south and north. The word *reckon* is commonly spoken so quickly and familiarly as to have the sound of *erk'n*.

Directly and *immediately* are singularly used for *as soon as*, in this manner: 'I will walk, *directly* I have finished my letter;' '*immediately* the spring opened, he recovered.' This use of the latter word I have even noticed in a highly respectable publication—*Virg. Ev. Mag.*

Like is converted into a conjunction, and performs the office of *as:* e. g. 'do *like* you see me do.' It also answers the purpose of *as if;* as 'he appears *like* he was deranged.'

Husk and *shuck*.—I have here uniformly heard the terms *husk* and *cob* employed synonymously to designate that part of an ear of corn on which the kernels grow; *shuck* is used for the leaf, or integument enclosing the ear. Walker defines the *husk*, "the integument or covering." *Shuck* I do not find in the dictionaries.

Coat is used, I cannot say how generally, for the outward garment of both the male and female dress. *Gown* I have not heard.

Big.—This obsolete word is often, and, sometimes, oddly used. '*Big hominy;*' '*a big fire;*' '*a big coat,*' for a surtout.

Tote.—To carry. '*Tote* the wood.' 'They have *toted* the corn to the granary.' It is not easy to account for the existence of this superfluous excrescence of speech. It cannot have been derived, for it resembles nothing else that bears the least alliance to it in meaning; it seems to be purely original; or, perhaps the expression would be better, *aboriginal*.

Persuade.—For *try to persuade:* thus, 'she *persuaded* him to abandon the object, but without success;' She *laboured to persuade*. To persuade implies success, and not the mere use of means. Yours, gentlemen, very respectfully,

A YANKEE.

Washington, July 15.

FROM THE RICHMOND ENQUIRER.

Penitentiary System in the United States.

NO. II.

To demonstrate the advantages likely to be derived to the United States over the individual states, it is proper to consider them under three separate heads, viz.—crimes, labour and economy. As there are fewer crimes cognizable under the laws of the former, than the latter, it is presumable that a smaller number of convicts will be confined, and of course be more profitably employed in manufacturing the necessary articles wanting for the various purposes of government. The labour should be principally that required for ship building, viz.—cordage, spikes, bolts, blocks, &c. and the clothing of the army and navy. This would prevent the impositions of contractors, and produce a great saving in the cost of the articles; and lastly, economy, the proverbial subject of the day, will be greatly advanced by lessening the expense of supporting, guarding, and attending criminals before and after conviction. This is very clear from the expense attending the fifteen prisoners confined in Richmond under a charge of piracy. I am credibly informed that the daily expense is between thirty and forty dollars; but say thirty dollars, giving each two dollars per day, exclusive of clothing, makes an aggregate for the year of ten thousand nine hundred and fifty dollars; when two of the United States' prisoners that are confined in the Virginia penitentiary, cost only one hundred and thirty dollars ten cents per year each, including every thing except the physician's bill. Take this statement for the data, and what will be the saving in the year to the government? I am very much inclined to believe that in a few years a sum sufficient from this source alone would defray the expense of erecting the necessary building for a penitentiary.

It must be borne in mind that the United States have no jails; but use those of the states located in each county (perhaps more expensive and demoralizing institutions do not exist in our country); and where they are crowded with offenders, or unsafe, resort is had to the renting of houses and hiring of guards, which produces the enormous expense before stated.

There are other advantages more momentous, which in a government like ours, should be of the first consideration; that of endeavouring to improve the minds and correct bad habits, and extend an equal hand of justice to our fellow men.

Governments were instituted for the good and happiness of the governed; therefore every expedient should be resorted to, likely to improve its condition, and not endanger its safety. In England there have existed the most cruel and bloody laws that ever disgraced a country; yet even there they have awakened from their slumbers with an eye less dim, and set about correcting the cruel and sanguinary policy that has so long stained the character of that nation; and shall we, her offspring, who disclaimed and abandoned her (as a parent), because of the multiplied injuries and tyrannical oppressions inflicted on us, be now behind her in acts of benevolence?

No, I hope not; let those enlightened friends of humanity and domestic economy set on foot the work of reformation, in our criminal, as they have in our civil institutions, and show to England and the world, that we are not a people making general abstract provisions, and governed by laws inconsistent with ourselves, but acting on the most laudable and rational principles of doing justice to our citizens, endeavouring to correct their moral depravities and place them in a situation where they may become useful members of society. In this way too, we demonstrate the absurd policy, the unjust and unchristian practice of putting it out of the power of the unfortunate culprit to make reparation for the injury he has done, before an opportunity is given him of correcting his vicious habits, and enjoying a life more usefully employed in cultivating a good understanding with penitent gratitude for the lenity shown by the merciful and just laws of a country whose government is founded on the purest principles of justice and humanity.

BECCARIA.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

WALSH'S APPEAL.

This valuable volume, the introduction to a treatise which will, without doubt, be esteemed a standard work of national character, has already undergone a second edition.

The plan Mr. Walsh has pursued of arraying British writers against British calumniators, and contrasting different parts of the testimony of the same witness, is certainly as eligible a one as could have been adopted. *By their own words have they been tried, and by their own words have they been condemned.* A refutation of their falsehoods by direct proof on our part, had sufficed to convince a disinterested party; but, to suit the prejudices of a rival nation, it was necessary to match Briton with Briton.

It is the opinion of some, that Mr. Walsh would have employed his time and talents to more purpose, in trying to make us *better*, instead of showing how *good* we are. But those who make this objection cannot surely be ignorant, that the "Historical sketch of our merits and wrongs as colonies, and strictures upon the calumnies of British writers," is but the introduction to "A survey of the institutions and resources of the American republic, and of the *real* character and condition of the American people." In the prosecution of his plan, Mr. Walsh will necessarily be led to expose certain evils, trace them to their origin, and point out their remedies; and in this way, it is presumable, will give satisfaction to all classes of his readers.

It is worthy of remark, that in almost every thing in which we have an evident superiority over other nations, we differ from the British; while almost every thing among us which affords just grounds for censure, we have derived from them. There are but few of the reprehensible parts of our government and character, but what ought to be regarded in the light in which the author of the "Appeal" holds up domestic slavery, "as an hereditary gout or leprosy, ascribable in its origin to the vices of the parent state." The reverse of this, however, marks the conduct of British writers in general. They represent our nation as (what it is not easy for any nation to be) worse than their own. All the good we have among us, according to their account, we have derived from their immaculate selves, and all the evil is of domestic origin. The falsity of their assertions, as far as our colonial state is concerned, has been fully evinced by Mr. Walsh in his introduction; and if the argument is carried on in the same masterly manner throughout the remainder of the treatise, his triumph will be complete.

It is to be ardently desired that the engagements into which Mr. Walsh has recently entered, may not retard the publication of the work which he has promised to his readers. In the meantime, however, those who are dissatisfied with his not having made a more direct attempt to improve our condition, may draw many inferences of the first practical utility from the facts collated in the first volume. The mode of replication there used, is not only commendable, because it places the United States and Great Britain in pointed contrast, and brings the question of their comparative merits and demerits to fair issue, but highly salutary, because it inculcates some important truths in relation to domestic policy. That there is a similarity between the present state of the American republic and that of the kingdom of Great Britain, arises from the similarity of certain institutions common to the two countries; that there is a similarity only, and not a *sameness*, originates in difference of circumstances: for like causes must operate under exactly like circumstances, to produce exactly like effects.

The task which Mr. Walsh has prescribed to himself is truly an arduous one

but one for which most of his readers must believe him to possess ample qualifications. No work could have been projected of more extensive and practical utility, than that in which is to be exposed the good and evil among us, with a distinction, in regard to the evil in particular, as to what has been caused by other governments, what by our own, what arises from the constitution of our nature, and what from the defects of our political institutions. If, in the prosecution of his design, Mr. Walsh should not mistake (as is often done by political writers) "the *occasion* for the *cause*, and a collateral effect for a principle of causation," his work will be invaluable. S. P. T.

BOTTA'S AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

We have already signified, on two occasions, our satisfaction with the undertaking of Mr. George A. Otis, in relation to the excellent work of Mr. Botta. The following letter, which has been handed to us for publication, furnishes the highest authority in aid of our sentiments on the point. It will be read with interest on account not only of the real importance of its subject, but of its happy style of expression, and its vigorous tone of patriotic feeling, so stimulative and exemplary in the composition of one seasoned by temperate, comprehensive philosophy, advanced far beyond the common term of human life, and long abstracted from active politics. [*Nat. Gaz.*

Monticello, July 8, 1820.

Sir—I thank you for De Pradt's book on the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. It is a work I had never seen, and had much wished to see. Although his style has too much of amphibology to be suited to the sober precision of politics, yet we gather from him great outlines and profound views of the new constitution of Europe, and of its probable consequences. These are things we should understand, to know how to keep clear of them.

I am glad to find that the excellent work of Botta is, at length, translated. The merit of this work has been too long unknown with us. He has had the faculty of sifting the truth of facts from our own histories, with great judgment, of suppressing details which do not make a part of the general history, and of enlivening the whole with the constant glow of his holy enthusiasm for the liberty and independence of nations. Neutral as a historian should be in the relation of facts, he is never neutral in his feelings, nor in the warm expression of them, on the triumphs and reverses of the conflicting parties, and of his honest sympathies with that engaged in the better cause. Another merit is in the accuracy of his narrative of those portions of the same war which passed in other quarters of the globe, and especially on the ocean. We must thank him, too, for having brought within the compass of three volumes, every thing we wish to know of that war, and in a style so engaging that we cannot lay the book down. He had been so kind as to send me a copy of his work, of which I shall manifest my acknowledgment by sending him your volumes as they come out. My original being lent out, I have no means of collating it with the translation; but see no cause to doubt exactness. With my request to become a subscriber to your work, be pleased to accept the assurance of my great respect. TH. JEFFERSON.

George Alexander Otis, Philadelphia.

INTERESTING TO DYERS.

The following letter, with the Orchella Archil, *Lichen Rocella*, therein mentioned, I have recently received, and shall cheerfully deliver it to any person, who will make an experiment, to extract the colouring matter.

Under Archil and Litmus in Rees's Cyclopædia, are descriptions of this species of moss and its use.

Mr. Shepherd, of this town, informs me he has some treatises on Orchella, and will with pleasure, give such information as he may possess in relation to the mode of using it as a dye. The prepared pigment is now imported from England, under the name of the manufacturer, Cuthbear.

H. A. S. DEARBORN.

Custom House, Boston, July 8, 1820.

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Port Praya, St. Jago, Feb. 25, 1820.

Sir—Having been presented with a small sack of orchella, by the agent of the administration, I take the liberty of sending it to you. It is monopolized by the government, and an article of great value in Europe, from which a liquid is extracted, applied by dyers in fixing colours, particularly red, in which most American dyers fail. It is much used in Europe to give a brilliant hue to crimson, purple, violet and blue, woollen and silk fabrics.

In the Emporium of Arts and Sciences, by Coxe, vol. 2, page 317, it appears that orchella has been long used by the Tartars and Armenians at Astracan, and no doubt was originally introduced from Persia.

Anxious that the American dyers may become acquainted with the utility of orchella, I solicit that you will cause an experiment to be tried of the little I send you, and should any person be able to extract the liquid, and apply it in dyeing, the administration will permit it to be shipped to America. I am, with great respect, your most obedient servant.

SAMUEL HODGES, Jr.

Boston Patriot.]

The Miseries of the City of New York.

The following just lamentation by a Frenchman, is from the National Advocate, and is expressed with so much feeling, and at the same time is so just and natural, that we think it deserves transplanting. [*Ev. Post.*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATIONAL ADVOCATE.

Monsieur Editor—Je suis français, von Frenchman. I did come into dis contree pour liberte et tranquilite—for pauvre France, malhereusement, dere is de grande confusion la—vell, sair, I arrive en Nouvelle York—oh, it is bootiful cite, belle ville, I have de lodgement en rue Broadway—a joli rue—fine street—sair, je sui malade, I am ver sick, mais I have not de fievre jaune, de yellow fever. I did go to sleep ver well—En de matin, in de morning vat you sall call, just at de peep of de day I am rouse vis de grand tapage—great noise—I ouvre a fenetre, ope de vindow, and I did say, vat you vont, eh? Begar, it was too petit negres—de littel black devil vat sweep de shimnies—de say, sair, ve vill sweep de shiminee. Allez vous en—diable—go away—vat you makee de noise, eh? for vy you derange my rest? Sair, de negre shake de head and go avay, singing very loud, *Sweep, Sweep.* I go to my bed—encore I am fatigue. By and by, directly, ven I shall go to sleep again, I hear more confusion—*Meelk, Meelk—Ouw Iye.* Vat is all dat? I discover it is de lait—de milk vat you drink in de caffe; diable m'emporte, for vy you no sell de milk vidout make de grand noise? Ver soon I hear encore von autre chose—*Klam, de Rockaway Klam.* Vat is *Klam?* I get out of my bed encore avec de mal de tete, vid a grand pain in my head. Sair, I cannot live in dis dam countree. I valk en Broadway apres dinee—dere is one little coquin, he cries, *Rosk, Te Rosk.* Ven it is night, I hear, *Ot Korn, Ot Korn.* Vat de diable is *Ot Korn?* I ask de negres ladi vat sell de article. I discover, par example, it is vat ve give to de cochons—de hogs en my countree. Den dere is de cart—de bells—de gig—de bake pare. Sair, you ave de belle ville—de handsome ladi—de dandy jentimen—mai you make a to much noise pour moi—you will make me go to de ospital, vat you shall call de mad house. I vill go to von place call Babelon—dere is no noise dere—and, sair, if I cannot sleep in tranquilite, begar I will go back to France encore.

Monsieur Editor, votre tres humble serviteur, LA CARMAGNOLE.

DENSITY, WEIGHT, &c. OF THE EARTH.

From the experiments of Maskelyne, and the calculations of Hutton, Cavendish, Laplace, &c. it appears that considering the specific gravity of water as unity, the mean density of the earth would be, according to Hutton, 4.95; or according to Cavendish, 5.48. The mean most commonly adopted is, 5.4. Taking this as our ground work, we may now proceed to that most singular question of *weighing* the earth.

Assuming 7920 miles as the mean diameter of the earth, the number of cubic miles will be 239,979,311,961. Now each cubic mile contains 147,197,952,000 cubic feet; also every cubic foot of water weighs 1000 avoirdupoise ounces.

Hence a cubic mile of water will weigh 4,107,085,714 tons, and consequently a globe of water of equal dimensions with our earth would weigh

985,594,985,000,000,000,000 tons,

and that that multiplied by the calculated density, 5.4, gives

5,322,212,919,540,000,000,000 tons,

for the weight of the earth. [*Liv. paper.*

ANTIDOTES FOR POISON.

The many cases that occur of poisons being taken by mistake or design, induces us to publish the following directions, by an English physician, *J. Johnstone*, M. D. F. R. S. which have met the approbation of an eminent member of the faculty in this country, to whom we submitted them for his opinion.

1. When the preparations of arsenic, mercury, antimony, or of any metal, or when any unknown substance or matter has been swallowed, and there have speedily ensued heat of the mouth and throat, violent pain of the stomach, retching and vomiting; immediately drink plentifully of warm water, with common soap dissolved or scraped in it; two or three quarts of

warm water, with from three to four ounces to half a pound of soap will not be too much.

2. When any of the preparations of opium, henbane, nightshade, hemlock, tobacco, foxglove, or stramonium, or any poisonous fungus, mistaken for mushrooms, or spirituous liquors in excess, or any other unknown matters have been swallowed, exciting sickness without pain of the stomach, or producing giddiness, drowsiness, and sleep—give instantly one tablespoon full of flour of mustard in water, and repeat it in copious draughts of warm water constantly, until vomiting take place. If the person becomes so insensible as not to be easily roused—give the mustard in vinegar instead of water, and rub and shake the body actively and incessantly.

3. When oil of vitriol, spirits of salt, or aquafortis, have been swallowed or spilt upon the skin, immediately drink, or wash the part with, large quantities of water, and as soon as they can be procured, add soap, or potash, or chalk, to the water.

[*Trent. True Amer.*

Extract of a Letter from William Shelden, esq. to Professor Silliman, dated Springfield, (Mass.) Feb. 27th, 1820.

"Dear Sir—I send you a more particular account of the newly discovered properties of the chesnut.

"This tree (*Fagus castanea*, Linn.) is very abundant in New England and the middle states, and occurs in the mountainous districts as far southwardly as South Carolina or perhaps even in Georgia.

"It is one of the stateliest trees of the forest; scarcely less distinguished by the beauty of its foliage than by the durability of its wood. By repeated analysis, conducted with the minutest attention to every circumstance which would insure accuracy, it appears, incredible as it may seem, that the chesnut wood contains twice as much tannin as rossed oak bark, and six-sevenths as much colouring matter (which gives a black with iron) as logwood. I am aware that nothing could be further from the common apprehension than such results; but the uniform success of a great variety of experiments in tanning and dyeing, in addition to the other kind of evidence, should satisfy the most incredulous.

"The leather tanned with it has in every instance been superior to that tanned in a comparative experiment with oak bark, being firmer, less porous, and at the same time more pliable. The reason for this difference will probably be found in the high state of oxygenizement of the bark, particularly of the epidermis, by which it is rendered in a certain degree acrid and corrosive."

Cheap and Good Beer.—The papers give the following receipt to make that wholesome and necessary drink called beer. It may be made in five minutes and fit to drink in 8 hours after—and need cost but one cent a bottle.

Take 1 spoonful of ginger; 1 do. of cream of tartar; 1 pint yest; 1 do. molasses and 6 quarts of water, mix together cold—let it stand a few hours till it begins to ferment; then bottle, set it in a cool place, and 8 hours after it will be fit for use.

FROM WALPOLE'S REMINISCENCES.

Lady Suffolk (a favourite of George II.) was early affected with deafness. Cheselden the surgeon, then in favour at court, persuaded her that he had hopes of being able to cure deafness by some operation on the drum of the ear, and offered to try the experiment on a condemned convict then in Newgate, who was deaf. If the man could be pardoned, he would try it; and, if he succeeded, would practise the same cure on her ladyship. She obtained the man's pardon, who was cousin to Cheselden, who had feigned that pretended discovery to save his relation—and no more was heard of the experiment. The man saved his ear too—but Cheselden was disgraced at court.

Pope having drawn his famous character of Atossa, communicated it to the duchesses of Marlborough and Buckingham, pretending to each that it was levelled at the other. The Buckingham believed him: the Marlborough had more sense, and knew herself—and gave him a thousand pounds to suppress it—And yet he left the copy behind him!

Bishop Burnet, from absence of mind, had drawn as strong a picture of herself to the duchess of Marlborough, as Pope did under covert of another lady. Dining with the duchess after the duke's disgrace, Burnet was comparing him to Belisarius—"But how," said she, "could so great a general be so abandoned?"—"Oh! madam," said the bishop, "do not you know what a brimstone of a wife he had?"

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, August 12, 1820. No. 7.

Political Economy.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

ON INTERFERENCE WITH INDUSTRY.

From Say's Traité d'Economie Politique.

*But the proceedings of no kind of industry have been so much a prey to the regulating mania, as that which is employed in manufactures.

The object of many regulations has been to reduce the number of producers, either by binding them to their employment, or by exacting from them certain conditions upon which they might exert their industry. Thus have arisen the oaths of secrecy, rules not to employ those who have left other employers, and the trade corporations. Whatever may be the means employed, the effect is the same; a sort of monopoly is established at the expense of the consumer, an exclusive privilege, the benefits of which are partaken by the privileged producers. They can also more easily concert measures for their own advantage, having regular assemblies, syndics and other officers. In societies of this kind, they consider the *prosperity of commerce*, the *good of the state*, to mean the prosperity and advantage of the corporation; and they trouble themselves very little with examining whether the benefit they promise themselves is the result of real production, or whether it is not merely money which changes pockets—money passing from the consumers to the privileged productors.

This is the reason which generally induces people in any business of the kind, to solicit regulations by public authority; and the public authority, on the other hand, having always occasion to raise money, is very ready to grant them. Such regulation, besides, flatter the self love of men in power; it gives them an air of wisdom and prudence, and confirms their authority, which appears the more indispensable the oftener it is exercised.

Thus it is, that there is not perhaps a single country in Europe, where a man is free to dispose of his industry and capital according to his own convenience; in most of them he cannot change at will his place and profession.

FROM THE VILLAGE RECORD.

Suppose things are left to regulate themselves, the profits of him who manufactures articles of the same kind as those imported, will either be equal, greater, or less than those of others. If equal or greater, what need has he of further encouragement? If less, does it not prove that there are other more profitable ways of employing his labour and capital? and consequently, that we can procure such articles by direct or indirect exchanges, with less labour and expense than it will cost us to fabricate them?

But John Bull, who is so anxious that his tenants should supply us, that he will tax one part to give another a bounty for bringing goods to us (not willing that we should have the trouble of going for them), John Bull, I say, is busy in making arrangements that will enable him to do without every article that we can export, so that in future he intends to take nothing at all from us.—Indeed! And will he continue to send us goods and cutlery, and crockery ware, and what not?—Certainly, and much more than we stand in need of, if we will permit him.—And take nothing from us?—Nothing at all we can send him.—Then surely brother Jonathan must be an unreasonable fellow, as well as an ungrateful dog, if he should complain.

If importations were prohibited, we should then have employment for our labour and capital; whereas, now John Bull is so liberal in sending us every thing we want, that he will not let us have any thing to do.—A great hardship, truly.

If this state of things continues, the country will certainly become poor—that

* This forms a sequel to the translation printed in the last number, p. 82.

is, the people will come to want—What? bread and meat?—No, these will be so abundant for want of a market, that they will be rotting in our storehouses.—Cloths, linens, muslins, &c. for clothing? Oh no, we shall have more of these than we will know what to do with.—Any article of cutlery? —Don't pester me any more; I told you before, we shall have too great a quantity of these; but we will become poor.—A hard kind of poverty, to be sure.

By confining our citizens to the home market, all classes will be benefited; the farmer will make more, and so will the manufacturer; the tradesmen and labourers will have full employment, and be better paid; and contentment and plenty will be every where seen. That is, the farmer will procure more cloth for a bushel of wheat, and the manufacturer more wheat for a yard of cloth; the labourer will have more of the produce of his labour to appropriate to his own use, and will leave more for his employer; and every thing will be so ready sale, that the people will be hard set to get what they want.—Fine times, indeed! Very well; so be it. SOCRATES.

Record.

At a public meeting in Cincinnati on the 10th July, it was resolved, that after the 15th, they would receive no paper of any bank not paying specie; and would pass no depreciated paper unless for specie, or in payment of debts in bank.

Flour is selling in Cincinnati at $2 25 per barrel.

A vessel has been fitted out at Nantucket, to take whales, by throwing torpedoes into them.

The House of Commons by an extraordinary majority of 391 to 124, has recommended to the queen to accept the terms proposed to her by the ministers. The queen, however, has not complied, and has decided to brave the investigation.

It appears that the tumults of Paris have been repeated in many of the provinces.

On the arrival of commodore Bainbridge at Gibraltar, a message was received from governor Don, informing him that he had received orders to remove all restraints upon intercourse with American vessels, and to offer the usual civilities of the port. At the same time an apology was offered by the officers for their late rude challenge of some American officers. Governor Don wished to institute a court martial to punish them, but upon application to the American officers for a statement of the transaction, they declined giving it, and thus the matter appears to be amicably settled.

From Spain via Gibraltar.

A circular of the minister of finances, dated the 9th May, transmits to the authorities and parties concerned, his majesty's commands, that an inquiry be made into the political sentiments and moral character of the revenue officers, with a view to remove the odium hitherto fastened to their situations.

Another circular of the same minister, and of the following day, in answer to several applications from the Chapter of the Metropolitan Church of Valencia, and from other religious communities, who wished to be maintained in the enjoyment of certain privileges formerly granted them, reminds them all, by his majesty's orders, that *privileges* are contrary to the spirit and letter of the constitution, and that, therefore, their applications cannot be complied with.

The king has directed that such of the royal palaces, seats and other domains, as his majesty has agreed to give over to the commissioners for the payment of the national debt, and a list of which is annexed to the circular, together with a list of those which his majesty reserves for his own use, be so given over to said commissioners without delay, in proof of his majesty's eager wish to carry into effect the constitution he has sworn to, and to increase the funds appropriated to the payment of the creditors of the state, in whose fate he takes the liveliest interest.

A circular of the minister of finances, of the 13th of May, notifies his majesty's strict injunctions, that the funds appropriated to the payment of the creditors of the state, be no longer applied to other uses, as has been but too often the case in some provinces.

A royal decree prohibits the punishment of flogging in the Spanish dominions.

Extract from an Address of the Provisional Junta of Spain to the Spanish people, translated for the National Gazette.

"Just laws, consonant to the civilization of the age, were the object of our aspirations and the remedy for our ills: we possess them now, in our constitution; and we have obtained them, not as England did, by half a century of revolution and 500,000 victims; not as France did, at the expense of twenty-five years of excesses and wars—but with seven years of patience, a day of explanation, two days of jubilee. If, to this gratifying consideration, you add the rapid, steady, advised march of our new institutions; the concord and unanimity happily reigning among all the provinces; the appointment of men of tried virtue and known ability, to the first offices of state; the fundamental regulations of reform adopted, not in a confused and precipitate manner, but with circumspection and according to opportunity; the restoration of public credit; the abolition of illegal or unjust imposts and charges; other and innumerable dispositions, which in a short space of time have transmuted the genius of arbitrary government into a solid principle of constitutional order; the exaltation of public sentiment; the wonderful development of civic virtues; the quick progress of liberal ideas; the recovery of that estimation which we had lost with every nation of Europe;

the cheering hope and certain knowledge of what that nation may become, which, in the lapse of only two months, and without the effusion of blood, has reached the goal attained by other nations only after ages of strife and slaughter—if you add all these things, citizens, you will find not only consolation for the massacre of this day, but motive for a noble pride and exultation, such as Sparta felt at the glorious death of the warriors whom Leonidas led to the pass of Thermopylæ.

"Fulfil, then, the pious duties of this festival with the solemnity that becomes upright and devout minds; fortify your hearts by the contemplation of the noble example before you; heighten the admiration of the stranger at the transformation of Spain; let him see assembled multitudes without disorder; men free without insolence; religious without hypocrisy; bold yet prudent; passionate for their rights, but limiting their aims by human possibilities; modest in prosperity; obedient to the laws and zealous in their support; lovers of their king, not slaves of their lord. In fine, maintaining the sobriety and imposing calm which have hitherto contradistinguished our political revolution to all others, and shed so much lustre over our fortunate region, let us leave our posterity happy in the possession of a great example of moderation for them to imitate, and a body of just laws for them to preserve. The day is, perhaps, not far distant, when the foreigners who now, according to their particular mood, admire or disparage us, will repair hither as to a country of benediction, where may be enjoyed the true dignity of man; the regulated liberty which they, in their extravagance, were unable to consolidate; the integrity of hallowed laws which they knew not how to adapt to their character and habits."

A PROTESTANT CHURCH IN ROME.

Paris, April 26th.

Letters from Rome announce "that religious toleration has achieved a victory in the chief city of Catholicism. His holiness has permitted the Calvinists at present in Rome, the public exercise of their worship, and in consequence they have administered the sacrament in a church open to the public. M. Necker, an ancient Cyndic, of the republic of Geneva, being at present in Rome, the Protestants have requested him to walk at their head in going to the communion. This has been done, and gave general satisfaction.

"I attribute this determination of the court of Rome, to the progress of knowledge, as well as to the well known character of the sovereign pontiff for toleration. I do not agree in opinion with those who see in this act a motive of temporal interest, which will be pleasing to the cabinet of St. James. Whatever it may be, the friends of morality cannot but felicitate themselves in seeing the pope render such a solemn homage to the liberty of conscience.

"This concession should not surprise us; it emanates from a prince, who has introduced into his states the system of mutual instruction; and abolished the pain of death for crimes submitted to the judgment of the inquisition. It seems as if we already hear the cries of our *Ultras*. What will become of religion? The pope welcomes the Protestants, and the emperor of Russia banishes the Jesuits."

A writer in the Albany Argus makes the following statement of the amount of pecuniary patronage extended to literature by the legislature of New York.

RECAPITULATION.

Amount of School Fund,	1,232,908	
Amount of Literature Fund,	201,439	41
Aggregate amount of permanent fund,	1,434,347	41
Amount of grants to the Regents of the University,	28,750	
Amount of grants to Colleges,	721,575	
Amount of grant to Historical Society,	12,000	
Amount of grants to Academies,	396,000	
Amount of grants to Charitable and Free Schools,	25,631	56
Amount appropriated to State Library,	5,100	
Aggregate amount of occasional appropriations,	1,139,056	56
Making in the whole the sum of Dollars,	2,623,403	97

And if to this be added the value of the escheated lands, and of the proportion of clerks' fees belonging to the school fund, together with the value of the unappropriated literature and school lots in the military tract, the general aggregate of appropriations for the support of education and learning in this state, during the last thirty years, exclusive of the annual revenue of the permanent funds, will exceed the sum of *three millions of dollars.* [*Nat. Gaz.*

The *National Gazette* will be issued daily from the first of October next, and assume the character of a commercial as well as political and literary paper. It will at the same time be continued on the actual plan for distant subscribers.

DIED.

At Hanover, (N. H.) on the 27th ult. the Rev. Francis Brown, president of Dartmouth College.

At Portsmouth, (Va.) on the 2d inst. in the 62d year of his age, Mr. Joseph Grice, formerly of this city, shipbuilder.

At Washington, the Hon. John Graham, late minister plenipotentiary at the court of the Brazils, Rio Janeiro.

At his seat near London, on the 19th June, the venerable president of the Royal Society, the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks. The loss to science by the demise of this excellent man and liberal patron, will be long and severely felt. He has left his fine library to the British Museum.

Agriculture.

AN ADDRESS

Delivered before the Agricultural Society of Bucks County, at its stated meeting, held at Newtown, May 8, 1820, by James Worth, president of the society.

GENTLEMEN,

I hold it to be the duty of every member of the society, not only to be willing to perform such services as may be assigned to him, but to render something to advance the prosperity of the institution. In entering upon the distinguished station which you have allotted to me,

I am sensible of my utter inability to fill it, with a dignity commensurate with its importance; at the same time, I will never consent to hold it, unless I can in some degree be useful; and in the commencement of an establishment of such magnitude, it may be expected, that I should at least call your attention to some of its most prominent features. To offer you a complete exposition of AGRICULTURE, and all subjects connected therewith, would require me to travel over the whole globe, and scan it from its creation to the present moment; a thing far, very far, beyond my feeble powers to accomplish; I shall sufficiently expose my ignorance, by attempting merely to draw some faint outlines.

Agriculture is not only the most ancient, but certainly the most important of all the arts; since it is the basis upon which all others rest: without it manufactures cannot exist, and commerce must dwindle into nothing. It is the groundwork of industry, upon which the prosperity of every nation must depend. It has engaged the talents of the greatest and best of men, in every age and quarter of the world. I need only instance the father of our country, our beloved Washington. He had filled the most elevated stations of public life with unexampled reputation; and while holding the highest post which a free, enlightened and independent people could bestow, he voluntarily resigned it, to become a FARMER, to enter upon his own fields, and no doubt there enjoyed a happiness which he could nowhere else feel. Agriculture, then, is truly an honourable occupation; and the name of an *American Farmer*, is indeed a proud one. Our extensive country embraces almost every climate, and contains a vast variety of soils; an emigration from other parts of the world, is continually adding to our store of knowledge; whilst our happy constitution gives a free scope to every laudable pursuit. We really possess advantages unknown to any other nation on earth; and I do think that we are peculiarly favoured in this county: But has our great and bountiful Creator bestowed those inestimable blessings upon us, only to gaze at or to use for our own selfish purposes alone? No, they are given for our improvement, and for the benefit of all creation; and this, I trust, is the leading object of our association. A wide field lies before us, capable of the highest state of cultivation: there is indeed much to do, but there is nothing appalling—all is inviting, and let us enter upon the delightful work with alacrity. Suppose a map of the county was correctly drawn, showing the situation and condition of every farm within its bounds, and that the occupants of those farms were to favour us with a statement of their respective practice and produce; it would exhibit a mass of the most valuable information, and enable us to form such a system of agriculture, as would at once greatly improve the art. Nor need we stop here.—We can, by establishing a correspondence with others, readily become acquainted with their practice, and profit by their experience; and in thus promoting our own interests, we shall have the inexpressible satisfaction of advancing the prosperity of the whole human family. Yes, our most sanguine expectations will be more than realized.

I shall deem it unnecessary, on the present occasion, to detain you with an historical account of agriculture; but permit me to solicit your patience, whilst I state some particulars connected with its practice; in doing which, I must beg that you will bear with the many imperfections you may discover.

Soils are said to consist principally of four earths (the aluminous, silicious, calcareous, and magnesian), with vegetable and animal matter and saline substances; the earthy parts being considered the basis, the others acting as manures: it appears, however, that a portion of some of the earths is taken up by the plants, particularly the calcareous by clover, and the silicious by corn, wheat, &c. An eminent chemist has asserted, that the epidermis or outer coat of the rattan, contains a sufficient quantity of flint to give light when struck by steel; and that silicious earth exists generally in the epidermis of the hollow plants. Few of us can enter chemically into these matters; nor do I know that much advantage would attend it, as the operations of nature are so mysterious, that it is impossible to define precisely what constitutes fertility; yet it seems reasonable to suppose, that inasmuch as the plants must receive their nutriment in a fluid state, the earths should be so apportioned, as to imbibe and retain that degree of heat and moisture, best calculated to dissolve the other parts of the soil: this indeed will be a most difficult task to ascertain. No certain rule can be laid down, as much will depend on the climate, seasons, subsoil, inclination of land, kind of plants, &c. Even the colour of the soil is supposed to have an effect. Nevertheless, something can be done by tillage, regulating it to those circumstances; and great things can be accomplished by each member making observations on his own farm, and reporting the result, describing every particular as clearly as possible. There appears to have been generally in our neighbourhood, a deficiency of calcareous earth, which we have been supplying by the use of gypsum and lime. Upon our clayey lands, I am persuaded, that the application of sand would be very beneficial; I infer this from an experiment in my own garden: in regulating the ground, I had a small part taken the whole of the soil off, laying bare the subsoil, which was clay; I gave it a coat of manure, and planted beans—the produce was not worth gathering; next year I hauled a parcel of sand and some rich earth; I then planted it with beets, and was astonished at the great yield, the largest of them weighing thirteen pounds. It is equally probable that sandy soils might be much improved by a mixture with clay. The celebrated sir Humphrey Davy says, that in England "stiff aluminous soils, in general, are best adapted to wheat crops." In this country, such soils appear to me particularly unfavourable to that crop; and I mention the circumstance, to show the effect of climate.

Manures, or the food of plants, claim our pointed attention. It would give me great pleasure, if I could happily elucidate this part of my subject; but amid the conflicting opinions which prevail among the greatest and most learned men of our day, I can offer no data that will be relied on. I will, however, with deference, venture to state a few ideas which have occurred to me. Gypsum or plaister has indeed done won-

ders, but some say its effects with them have ceased; others say that it is only necessary to increase the quantity; lime is certainly very beneficial, and burnt clay is said to answer a good purpose. Whether these three substances act immediately as manures, or solvents, or in what manner precisely they do act, is not determined. Marle and ashes are in high estimation, but are without the reach of most of us. Many experiments are making on salt as a manure, and I recommend it to your notice. Animal and vegetable matters of almost every kind are acknowledged to be manures, and frequently are near at hand. Some of us have been hauling dung a great distance, with an expensive team, whilst a yoke of oxen at home would answer every purpose. Perhaps there is scarcely a farm which has not a considerable deposit of vegetable matter; I have seen many such places; some are completely filled up, and the digging them out would not only more than pay the expense attending it, but would open a new reservoir, to detain a valuable quantity, that otherwise would pass off, and be forever lost. I will further observe with respect to gypsum, that although the same quantity formerly used may not produce a like effect, yet its discontinuance may have a bad tendency. I am so little acquainted with the principles of chemistry, or I would hazard an opinion, that it has an affinity with something in the soil, which has been increased by our mode of cropping; and that uniting in certain proportions, it becomes advantageous also to increase the quantity of gypsum; so with lime, every time it is applied on a fertile soil, the quantity may be enlarged; in England, where it has been so long used, as much as seven hundred bushels are said to have been put on an acre of ground. We can only credit it, by supposing that their lime is of an inferior quality to ours, and such may be the fact; but I question whether our lands would bear that quantity, even of their lime. As manures are confessedly of the utmost importance, it becomes indispensably necessary, that we should diligently search out every means of obtaining them, as well as the proper mode of applying them, and he who will devise the best plan, will most assuredly confer a lasting benefit on the community. Much information would be gained by every member reporting his particular practice.

The selection of plants, is certainly of great consequence; several kinds are said to have ceased to yield a profitable crop; and the causes ought not to be overlooked. Wheat has probably been rendered uncertain, by late sowing, to guard against the Hessian fly; other insects have injured this plant; one is found in the larva state in the centre of the stock near the root; in a few instances I saw it above the first joint; it commits its ravages in the spring; it is now at work, and doing considerable damage; another is a long active worm, lodged in the upper part of the straw, and discovered after the head of the plant is formed, by its early change of colour; the disease called the stunt or sedge, has been supposed to be occasioned by an insect feeding on the roots, but I have this season ascertained, that it originates in the leaf; unfortunately, my observations were not made sufficiently early, to determine the true cause; it may possibly be a parasite plant, but I believe it to be an insect, which, though feeding on the leaf, appears to poison the whole branch, and considerably affects the crown of the root; so that afterwards it throws up weakly shoots that seldom produce grain and never in a perfect state; the wheat that I found thus affected, was the red chaff bearded; in a lot of mine, of the bald white, or what is called in this neighbourhood the manor wheat, I discovered in places the leaves to have the same appearance, but the stem and root not materially injured: and as far as my inquiries have since extended, I learn, that the disease is confined to the bearded kind; consequently I should think it advisable to change the seed, as the most easy and certain remedy: the causes of mildew and smut, have not been satisfactorily proven; some have supposed both to be occasioned by a parasitical plant; others think, and it seems to be the more general opinion among farmers, that the former is caused by the extravasation of the juices of the plant, on a sudden check of circulation. Corn is seriously injured by insects: we must all recollect the devastation of the cut or grub worm, in the year 1817. Fall ploughing has been recommended as a preventive; it has not however always succeeded; but the failure has in some instances been attributed to a migration from an adjoining field, to prevent which, a deep furrow has been ploughed round the cornfield, with the perpendicular side next the corn; and by digging holes along the furrow, bushels of worms are said to have been collected: an insect somewhat similar to that found on cabbages and the leaves of young trees, is sometimes very destructive. Entomologists would perhaps term it a species of the aphis, but not possessing any scientific knowledge in that respect, I will not venture to class it; it feeds on the roots of the corn, is very small, and being covered with a mould, is often overlooked; it is no doubt most injurious in dry seasons. Last year I had a lot nearly all destroyed by it; the roots were infested to their extreme points. The large grub was said to be mischievous last season, but I could not myself discover its damage, and think it more fairly chargeable to the insect abovementioned: The ant was also stated to do harm, though I think without cause, having frequently observed it following and feeding on insects, and always considered it useful. The declension of the clover crops, may in a great measure be owing to the extraordinary dryness of our late seasons, not only as acting immediately on the plant, but also in preventing the full effects of plaister; though a very close observer of things, told me, that he suspected an insect; and a much respected neighbour stated to me, that in addition to the dry seasons, he conceives the crop is lessened by its mixture with other grasses, and that it will not succeed on a grass lay; if however it is really a failure of the soil, in affording it nourishment, it will be difficult to recover, as the roots run too deep to reach it by an application on its surface; and yet, there must be a remedy or a substitute; would it not be well to turn our attention to the natural green or spear grass? On good ground, it will soon become well set, and continue to flourish for a long time, rooting out almost every thing else; and if we were to appropriate our most distant fields to this grass, and farm those nearest at hand, tilling

them oftener than some of us have heretofore done, it would be more convenient; we should be as likely to raise good crops, and it would rid us of many noxious weeds and other pests. I know this plan will be opposed by very many respectable farmers, and it may be thought ridiculous in me, to set up my judgment in opposition to theirs; but in doing it, I have a double object in view—if I am right, I may immediately benefit others; if I am wrong, the correction of my errors, will be of use to myself, and make me a better member of society for the future. I have thought that irrigation or watering, has been too much neglected, but our late seasons will sufficiently remind us of that duty; on the other hand, I have observed some rich grounds overcharged with water, which by ditching or underdraining, would be rendered very productive.

Is it not lamentable to see the decay of our fruit trees? The delicious peach is almost abandoned; the young apple trees, in some places, are attacked by a grub, commencing near the root and working up the stem; and I am really alarmed on account of our cherries; the *morello* is nearly gone, and I have seen four other sorts considerably affected. A small worm working in the outer branches, causes an exudation of the sap, and brings on a decline of the whole tree; plums and other stone fruit are injured by an insect called the cerculio; I might name other kinds; indeed scarcely any fruit is now safe, and the danger may be extended to hedges and forest trees; surely this is enough to rouse you to action: Let us then turn our attention to insects; they can generally be destroyed by investigating their history, and we ought not for a moment to lose sight of those attacking our fruits and plants. In the course of my little experience, I have found, that insects are most easily destroyed, in the nit or caterpillar state, and more readily in the former; sometimes an opportunity is offered in the chrysalis state, but this is after the damage is sustained; it seldom happens, that the nit is deposited where the caterpillar commences, and the position of the caterpillar often points its course; the larva of the Hessian fly, is always found with its head towards the root of the plant, which circumstance alone is sufficient to prove that it passed downwards, and yet the absurd idea has been raised, that the nit was deposited on the grain of the wheat. After a lapse of more than forty years, our worthy member, Mr. *John Linton*, fortunately observed the fly, in the act of depositing its eggs, on the leaf of the wheat; I therefore take a pleasure in announcing him as the first discoverer of this important fact, and I acknowledge myself indebted to him for that information, as it has enabled me to trace the history of the insect, from its deposit last fall, to the present state of the spring deposit, in a very satisfactory manner, and which I had intended to lay before the society at this meeting; but I now propose to defer it, until I shall have followed it throughout the whole year; I will only mention, that it is at this time in the caterpillar state, near the root of the plant, and I fear is doing great injury to the weak wheat. The insect, the larvæ of which is found in the cavity of the stem, I presume deposits its eggs on the leaf, as the position of the worm shows its passage downward; I discovered it last spring in searching after the Hessian fly, and I consider it nearly as destructive—its ravages have generally been attributed to the fly, as it has the same effect in destroying the branch on which it is lodged, and it commences its operations about the same time. I think it likely that it is a species of spider, that renders our late crops of grass of so little value, and causes the salivary diseases in horses and other animals feeding on it. The parent of the grub or cut worm, probably deposits its progeny on the surface of the soil or on the grass, and it is only necessary to ascertain the time, in order effectually to destroy it by ploughing or burning. I recollect seeing among the memoirs of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, an account of corn having been planted on ground that was the preceding year in with buckwheat, and some of it coming up among the corn; the crop was not injured, the worm preferring the buckwheat; and in a similar case under my own observation, no damage was sustained; but I strongly suspect there were no grubs in my lot; hence I conclude, that the usual time of ploughing for buckwheat, is about the time to guard against the grub. The history of the cloth moth, I had occasion to investigate when a boy, and found it an easy matter to prevent its ravages; and I am confident that by proper attention and a little labour, every insect may be destroyed, or its mischief prevented—and I shall consider that none of us can boast, while baffled in our pursuits, by this lower grade of animal creation—but I am almost silenced when I reflect, that even the common caterpillar has done us great injury; it is so completely within our reach and so easily destroyed, that no industrious man can complain; and he who suffers it to blast his prospects of fruit, deserves not (in my humble opinion) the delicious taste. Our grass crops are without doubt favourable to the increase of insects—but much is owing to man's cruel destruction of the feathered tribe: it has been related, that a pair of wrens were seen to take to their young, from forty to sixty insects per hour—taking the medium fifty, and calculating twelve hours' work, it amounts to six hundred per day, which probably prevented the deposit of some thousands of eggs—so that the aid which would be afforded us by the preservation of birds, is inconceivably great, and therefore loudly calls for some decisive measures, to put a stop to the shameful practice of shooting them, and it would be a most praiseworthy act in the society, to carry such measures into immediate execution.

Our live stock of every description, deserves our particular regard, and I hope our association will do much to improve the several breeds; it generally happens, that the most useful of the working sorts, are the least expensive—and certainly a great saving can be made by a judicious selection of the fattening kinds. It will be a most desirable point, to ascertain the best and most economical mode of feeding; soiling instead of pasturing, has been strongly urged by some, and it will be well to consider, whether feeding the hay in a cured state, with a portion of grain, would not be preferable to either. The diseases of our animals have been much neglected. I shall look for something on this head, from our respectable medical members, who I am truly glad to see amongst us. I appeal not

only to their patriotism, but to their humanity, to rescue our suffering beasts from the hands of unprincipled quacks. It is asserted by some eminent observers, that both animals and vegetables, will degenerate, unless frequently changed, or crossed. Nature is said to delight in change, and is quoted for our instruction; but I must question the correctness of those quotations, to the extent contended for; for instance, the natural change of timber, does not prove that the soil is sickened, or unable to sustain a second growth, of a particular species; the appearance of my woods at present, is that of oaks and hickory; but there are a few poplars and ash, though not observed in a general view, yet have scattered their seeds all over the woods and are shooting up in great abundance, while the acorns and hickory nuts are taken up by squirrels, &c. so that if I were to cut down the whole of the timber now standing, in the succession the present sorts would be overpowered by those others, they being of a more rapid growth; or admitting that every stump would produce a new tree, still the others being more numerous would entirely alter the general appearance; so with grasses, the natural will soon root out the artificial, and yet on ploughing the soil and again sowing the latter, it grows as before. The same with respect to animals that frequent the woods; if all the hollow trees and other harbouring places are removed, they will remove also—or if a beast of prey comes among them, they will be frightened away; whereas had it not been for those circumstances, they could very well have subsisted in the same place; and if degeneration is proved, it is readily accounted for, in the practice of selling or killing the best, and retaining the most indifferent. The same in seeds of plants; if we obtain a good kind, it is commonly mixed with an inferior, and consequently must degenerate. In every instance of selecting the best, I have found the kind to improve, and therefore think it wrong to change for an inferior, but always a duty to be on the look out for better. Nature is uniformly the same under similar circumstances, and if rightly observed, will tend to improvement: I only contend that we are sometimes too fond of changes and far fetched things.

Fencing is another object worthy of your consideration; it is the protection of our farms, and I propose to dwell more fully upon it, at some future day; nor should we forget barns and other outhouses, and implements of husbandry; as the security of our crops, and the proper culture of our lands, must depend on them. Even the roads we pass over, ought not to escape our notice, because they are necessary to the conveyance of our produce to market; besides, the keeping them in good condition, would invite travelling through our land; at the same time I confess, that our taxes are already sufficiently high, but could we not have better roads, at a less expense, by having them mended by contracts with individuals living near their respective parts? By having their work constantly under their eye, a little labour done at the proper time, would often prevent a serious damage.

Domestic manufactures are of great moment; I particularly mean those of families, so far as to keep the members fully employed. There are seasons when much can be done, in almost every family, that otherwise would be spent in worse than idleness. I have really derived sincere pleasure when visiting a neighbour, to find the female part of the family engaged in spinning, while the men were preparing the materials; and I was lately informed by a friend of mine, that in a dear time, he had cloth manufactured at one dollar and fifty cents per yard (he furnishing the material), which would outwear that imported now selling at six dollars; so that whether the whole process is done at home, or the material furnished to a neighbouring manufacturer, we find it very profitable to ourselves, and highly beneficial to our country. But by all means, do as much within our own doors as possible, because every thing there done, is an actual saving of money, and a rational way of spending time; I hope then that every encouragement will be given to this part of our economy.

The excessive use of spirituous liquors is a great scourge to the agricultural interest. Much has been written on the subject, and yet but a faint picture of the odious drunkard has been portrayed; more seems to have been levelled at the liquor, than the intemperate man; and the measures heretofore pursued to counteract the baneful effects of this dreadful vice, have failed of success, probably owing to the want of some general system of action; perhaps too, we have in some instances attempted more than was in our power to accomplish, and thereby only exposed our weakness; fixed habits cannot be instantly removed, and it is generally surest and best, to effect the reform gradually; let us then in our attack upon this monster, proceed with a moderate, steady pace, and a firm determination to overcome. If any liquor is given to labourers, confine it to work where there is an extraordinary exposure, such as haymaking and harvesting. It may be that a little then, to those who are habituated to take it, might be necessary; but limit the quantity, and discourage its use, as much as possible. I would propose to add double its price to the wages of those who would entirely abstain from it. I think in some such way, the practice might be brought into disrepute and finally done away. I suggest this, that others may devise some more suitable plan.

The suppression of vice and immorality is indeed a desideratum; every class of society is interested in a correct state of public morals, and none more deeply than the agriculturist; but I shall ever despair of its attainment, in any nation, until vice is made a misdemeanour of office, as it is the height of folly to expect that laws will be faithfully executed, by officers who are among the first to violate them; and when we reflect, that the prevailing vices are sapping the very vital principle of our government, we ought to be alarmed.

I cannot close this address, without adverting to the present calamitous state of affairs. That great and very general distress prevails, we must all acknowledge, and I trust we all in humility of soul deplore it; but in comparing our condition with others, where is there a people so highly favoured? Though we have nothing to boast of, we have much to be grateful for; and a state of adversity is most favourable to permanent good; the mind is cleansed of all its

filth, and brought to see things as they really are. If we take a retrospective view of our conduct, we shall clearly perceive that the whole of our present distress has grown out of our unexampled state of prosperity. The wars in Europe had thrown a great portion of the commerce of the world, and an immense capital into our hands; speculation was soon afloat, and while it was confined to the wants of others, astonishing profits accrued to us; but no sooner were we embroiled in the unhappy contest, than the scene was changed; speculation was turned upon our own necessities, and even upon our very soil; the balance of trade was immediately set against us, and we became embarrassed; we ought then instantly to have been on the alert, but alas! our idol, MONEY, had blinded our eyes. The bubble is now burst, and how does the matter stand? The speculator has amassed a fortune, the industrious man is ruined. Abominable speculator! thou hast never done an atom of good in society; thou hast made money, but thou hast made it on the ruins of thy fellow creature; and remember, that thousands, basely acquired, bring only misery; whilst a cent, honestly gained, is a treasure. It is speculation alone that has caused all our disasters. But let us examine a little further into our situation; perhaps it is not so wretched as at first sight it would appear to be; lands have indeed fallen considerably in price, yet the soil is in a most rapid state of improvement, and is intrinsically better, by yielding greater crops. True it is, that the prices of produce have also declined; but is there not as much nutriment in a bushel of wheat now as there ever was? and it is therefore in fact as valuable. Further, if the things we sell are low, so are those we buy; and if we were to shake off all our *imaginary* wants, we should find no difficulty in supplying our *real* ones. The cloud of affliction that is now hovering over us, will soon disappear, and when we behold the valuable improvements which are going on in almost every direction, it would seem that the bright day of prosperity is again about to dawn; and having learnt true wisdom, from past errors, we shall be more likely to make a proper improvement of the future. The formation of agricultural societies is well calculated to promote this happy state of things; and I trust ours will do its part. Many of you already very justly sustain a high grade as cultivators of the soil; every member can do something, and uniting your experience, much good will result. Not only the present generation, but millions unborn, will be indebted to this society, for some valuable discovery, or in some way be materially benefited by your labours. Surely then these prospects are encouraging: and I beseech you to carry on the great work with untiring perseverance.

If in this discourse I have advanced any errors, it is your province to correct them, and I hope no false delicacy will prevent you; as by so doing you will essentially oblige me. I have not pretended to discuss fully the several topics upon which I have touched; I only intended to bring them to your consideration. I have without doubt omitted many things deserving of your notice, and I trust you will amply supply all deficiencies. If I have in any way been tedious or uninteresting, my zeal for the welfare of the institution (having never before attempted a thing of this kind), will, in some degree, I hope, plead my excuse. I will only add my fervent wishes, that the Great Ruler of the universe may bless our undertaking; that we may all of us fill with propriety the stations respectively allotted to us by Providence; that in filling those stations, we may promote the happiness of our fellow creatures; and that in promoting their happiness, we may complete our own.

At a meeting of the Cincinnati Society for the promotion of Agriculture, Manufactures and Domestic Economy, held at the court house in Hamilton county, on the 27th June, pursuant to public notice—general W. H. Harrison in the chair, the following premiums were agreed upon and ordered to be published, to wit:

For Linen, not less than 25 yards in the piece; 1st quality $15, 2d quality $10, 3d quality $5.

Woollen cloth, for not less than 12 yards, at least ¾ of a yard wide—1st quality $15, 2d quality $10, 3d quality $5.

Bull Calves, not more than one year old—1st best $15, 2d best $10, 3d best $5.

Heifer Calves, not more than one year old—1st best $10, 2d best $5, 3d best $3.

Milch Cows, form of the animal, quantity and quality of the milk to be considered—1st best $15, 2d best $10, 3d best $5.

Merino Rams—Best full blood $8, best half blood $5.

Common Rams, of long wool breed—1st best $5, 2d best $3.

Hogs of the best breed, size and proneness to fatten early to be considered—1st best $15, 2d best $10, 3d best $5.

Work Oxen—1st best pair $15, 2d best pair $10, 3d best pair $5.

Stud Colts, not more than three years old—best $25.

Brood Mares—1st best $15, 2d best $10, 3d best $5.

Beside the above the society will give a premium for any essay, specimen, or discovery, which will serve eminently to promote either of the subjects embraced by the constitution of this society.

WM. H. HARRISON, President.
(Attest) J. EMBREE, Secretary.

[*Cincinnati Gaz.*

Miscellany.

WESTERN MUSEUM.

We have been favoured by an unknown friend at Cincinnati, with a copy of "An Anniversary Discourse on the state and prospect of the Western Museum Society, delivered by appointment, in the chapel of the Cincinnati college, June 10, 1820, on the opening of the museum. By Daniel

Drake, M. D. secretary of the society, member of the American Philosophical Society, &c. &c."

The whole history of the western states is a wonderful example of the advancement of population, wealth and refinement, under a system of government which, contented with fulfilling the legitimate objects of national power—the protection of persons and property, is free from the debasing distinctions of the rest of the world, and comparatively guiltless of the mischievous errors into which the artificial policy of other nations have drawn them. We look upon this great scene in the west with the most lively interest, and with the most anxious wishes for the progress of improvement in that vigorous portion of the United States. The curse of banking has fallen upon it in common with all other parts of the union, and the disease of slavery has been communicated to some of the states by contagion with their Atlantic neighbours; but from the youthful and active zeal which animates them, we confidently look for a gradual approach to a more perfect state of moral and political order.

Ohio, "the Pennsylvania of the west," is an object peculiarly pleasing to the philanthropist. Of very recent settlement, its population has advanced with unexampled rapidity, and at the formation of the state constitution, *slavery* was forever excluded. The state of society is much more refined, and flagrant crimes are more uncommon there, than in some of the other new states.

To such of our readers as have not seen it, we beg leave to recommend a perusal of the Picture of Cincinnati (by the author of this discourse), as containing much valuable information concerning the western country.

The plan of the Western Museum "embraces nearly the whole of those parts of the great circle of knowledge which require material objects, either natural or artificial, for their illustration."

"To establish in this new region a scientific cabinet, on a plan so varied and extensive, may be considered by some as premature and impracticable. It is not difficult to show, however, that this objection is rather specious than solid. For an obvious reason, it is a new country in which such a multifarious assemblage is most proper. Ancient communities, only, exhibit a perfect separation of kindred trades and occupations, and a divorcement of the extraneous branches of science from the learned professions, to which in young societies we find them closely united. Old communities, therefore, are the only ones which can *successfully* establish cabinets and museums for particular classes of objects, and destined for the benefit and amusement of particular orders of men. Let no one, then, charge our society with temerity for aiming at a general collection; nor regard as an evidence of vain glory and undisciplined ambition, what, in reality, is both the effect, and indication, of our recent settlement in a new region."

After a dissertation upon the study of natural history, mineralogy, and geology, including a notice of some *desiderata* which the western inquirer will probably be able to supply, the author proceeds as follows:

"In our museum there is a collection of the utensils, weapons and trinkets of our Indian tribes. Some of these were obtained from themselves: others were found in the vicinity of their deserted villages, or disinterred from the rude stone or earthen *tumuli*, which we occasionally find overgrown with weeds in the obscurity of our thick woods. I hope to see this department of our cabinet extended much further. I trust that we are not disposed to forget that the curiosities which it contains are the memorials of a people, who were lately the highminded proprietors and sovereigns of the country which we now inhabit: that the vallies of the Scioto, the Miami and Ohio were for ages overspread with their encampments: that our hills were once vocal with their songs and orisons, re-echoed their fiery and figurative warspeeches, and resounded the tumult of their dance and chase: that these hills and vallies were the land of their fathers, and those scenes their hereditary devotions, pastimes and pursuits:—but that a succession of wars and treaties have dispossessed them of their domain, and driven them, with the elk and bison, to remoter solitudes in the northwest. Until we are prepared to deny, or can cease to remember, these simple and affecting truths, we must commend the curiosity that would seek to preserve from oblivion some memento of a people that seems to be doomed to inevitable extinction.

"With a reference not only to the preservation, but to the acquisition, of curiosities from among that people, I cannot forego the pleasure of adverting to the Union Osage Mission, which has recently passed through our city. The wooden foundations of Fort Washington, erected to protect the inhabitants of this place against incensed and hostile Indians, are not yet decayed, and this mission is destined to a permanent residence among tribes equally untamed, one thousand miles further west! The enlightened philanthropists that compose it, from that remote station, will shed upon civilized society all the rays of knowledge which they can collect; and we have received a promise that a few at least shall fall upon our institution. Independently of the obligation imposed by this pledge, I shall be excused by every friend of mankind, for offering an incidental tribute of respect to the holy and intrepid benevolence, which could detach for ever from the joys and comforts of home, so many intelligent and happy persons, and immure them in the depths of the wilderness, for the sole purpose of dispensing the blessings of civilization and Christianity among its benighted inhabitants."

Then follow some further remarks upon

the *dark ages* of this continent; a vindication of the fine arts from the charge of luxurious uselessness, and some exhortation to an augmentation of the library attached to the institution.

The following remarks upon *domestic travelling*, agree entirely with our own opinions. It is surprising that advantages that may be so cheaply purchased, are so much disregarded by opulent and liberal parents:

"Dismissing the consideration of particular topics, I shall pass to a few general remarks. From the preceding review, it appears to be among the leading objects of the Western Museum Society, to collect and preserve the natural and artificial curiosities of the United States, and especially of that portion which we inhabit. If any enlargement of mind can result from the examination of them when exhibited in the museum, the same effect would be produced, in a much higher degree, by inspecting and contemplating them in their natural situations. I cannot, therefore, but regret, that we do not attach more importance to journies of observation through our own country. Travels of this kind were eloquently recommended, almost a century ago, by the celebrated Linnæus, and ought to make a part of the education of every young man. After having completed his scholastic, academic or collegiate course, and acquired the rudiments of his trade or profession, he could do nothing so well calculated to enrich his mind with useful knowledge, and qualify him for the practical duties of future life, as to travel through his native land. The objections that preclude the greater number of our young men from foreign travelling, cannot lie against domestic, which I do not hesitate to say would be equally serviceable. It is quite deplorable to observe, in what utter ignorance of the condition of their native country, they usually engage in the career of business that is allotted to them. Whether destined to be farmers, mechanics, or merchants; physicians or divines; soldiers, lawyers, or even politicians or statesmen; they, in general, enter upon their respective pursuits with equal ignorance of the geography, natural history, and statistics of their theatre of action; and of the character and genius of the people with whom all their future relations are to be formed. A few of our sons are sent to Europe; but this, even supposing them to derive some improvement from such a journey, does not make them acquainted with their own country, and cannot, therefore, supersede the necessity of exploring it."

The discourse is concluded as follows:

"To specify all the connexions between the cultivation of science, and the increase and perpetuity of our happiness, would require more time and higher powers than have been appropriated to this occasion: for to what shall we ascribe the more admirable principles of our federal constitution, when compared with all others, but the profounder acquaintance of our statesmen with the science of government? To what shall we attribute the greater respectability and dignity of character which belong to the middle and lower ranks of our people, but the more general diffusion of information consequent upon our excellent political system? To what shall we refer the extinction of many of the absurd prejudices and odious superstitions which, not half a century since, defaced our national physiognomy, but the influence of juster views of nature and her laws? To what can we ascribe our better progress in the mechanical and chemical arts, but a closer study of the principles of natural science? To what shall we attribute the decreasing necessity and practice of sending our sons abroad for an education; but the improving state of our own institutions, the augmentation of their libraries, cabinets, and philosophical apparatus, and the employment of more learned professors? To what, in short, shall we ascribe the decided amelioration of our national character, and its regular though tardy approaches towards refinement and elegance, but the cultivation of letters and science?

"If we perceive then, in the increase of useful knowledge the true secret of our permanent happiness; if literature can supply the talismanic agent of our prosperity and power, and philosophy, like 'a pillar of fire by night,' direct our wandering footsteps to the temple of glory, let us not ignobly stay our hands from the labours by which, only, philosophy and letters can be made to flourish. Let the architects of our national greatness conform to the dictates of science; and the monuments they construct will rise beautiful as our hills, imperishable as our mountains, and lofty as their summits, which tower sublimely above the clouds."

By way of contributing our mite towards the advancement of the views of the society, we reprint the *Appendix*.

"The Managers of the Western Museum Society avail themselves of the opportunity afforded by the distribution of the preceding discourse, to propose exchanges with other societies, and with individual collectors at a distance.

"The principal articles, which they can send abroad with convenience, are—geological specimens of the secondary rocks of the basin of the Ohio, with their organic remains, and accompanying minerals; preserved specimens of the mammalia, birds, fishes, amphibia, crustacea, mollusca, insects and worms of the same region; grinders of the mastodon and arctic elephant; Indian implements, and aboriginal relics taken from mounds and tumuli.

"In exchange for any of these, they will be glad to receive from the eastern states and from Europe, foreign zoological, geological and mineralogical specimens of every kind; also manufactures and trinkets from the islands of the Pacific ocean; coins and medals; paintings, casts from statues, and fragments of sculpture, of such excellence as to serve for models—and finally, books, in the various departments of physical science, whether written in the English, French or German languages.

"As an herbarium is contemplated among the future acquisitions of the society, and as the managers are desirous of promoting the introduction and cultivation of exotic plants, they will be pleased to receive any valuable seeds and roots of other countries, and will, in return, transmit such of our indigenous vegetable productions as may be requested.

"Foreign packages, intended for them, may be consigned to Professor Silliman, Yale College; to Professor Mitchill, New York; to Mr. John Vaughan, Philadelphia; Mr. Horace H. Hayden, Baltimore; or to Messrs. Noble and Miller, New Orleans, who will reimburse the expenses which have been incurred.

"From the authors of books on the various topics embraced in the plan of the museum, whether published in the United States or in Europe, the managers would be very happy to receive copies for the library of the institution. By transmitting their works to this distant place, a wider dissemination of their fame would be effected, while they would experience the noble satisfaction of being instrumental in naturalizing the sciences in a new country.

"From their fellow citizens of the back woods, generally, the managers would earnestly ask such curiosities, both natural and artificial—whether as donations or otherwise would, of course, be left to themselves—as may fall into their hands. With this assistance, the labours and expenditures of the society would be rendered far more efficient and productive than they otherwise could be; and the important but difficult design of making the institution an extensive and useful school of nature and art, would be much sooner accomplished.

"Elijah Slack,
"William Steele,
"Jesse Embree,
"Peyton S. Symmes,
"Daniel Drake,
"*Managers.*

"*Cincinnati, Ohio, June*, 1820."

ENGLISH RADICALS.

A few days ago an English emigrant called upon a bookseller in this city, with a copy of a book, entitled, "Modern Religion; by Moses Hart:" printed at New York for the author. Mr. Hart wished the bookseller to sell it for him; but he took the precaution of reading it first, and we had an opportunity of looking over it. There is no notice taken of any previous scheme of religion: this is in accordance with a declaration by the author, that he wished to offend no one. There are "ten commandments," (all new) "three superior duties obligatory," and "twenty-five secondary duties obligatory." Some of the latter were very ludicrous, but rather indecent.

In marriage, the woman, "to prevent the jealousy of the husband," is to take an oath of fidelity; but this is not to be required of the man, "for some countries admit of polygamy, and indeed it seems that human nature is favourable to it."

There is a prayer at the funeral service, part of which is as follows: "How thankful ought we to be, that thou bringest man so early to the tomb; if our lives were prolonged, how soon would we destroy each other for want of room!"

There is a confession of faith, in which it is said that vice and virtue will be rewarded and punished in this world. A hope of future existence is intimated very darkly. One day in the week, every one is to refrain from unnecessary labour; it may be any day that any town may agree upon, except *Wednesday*, as on that day there are thirteen grand festivals.

Our object in mentioning this silly radical, was only to ask why the great body of the *reformers* in England (at least of the poorer class of them) should have become the ready advocates of blasphemy and infidelity. It would seem as if the principle of implicit obedience and unbounded reverence for their superiors were so strong, and so closely united with all that has been taught them from their childhood, that in tearing it from them, every moral restraint and religious impression is eradicated.

The following melancholy letter alludes to Accum's "Treatise on Adulterations of Food and Culinary Poisons."

FROM BLACKWOOD'S EDINBURGH MAGAZINE.

Letter from an elderly Gentlewoman to Mr. Christopher North.

My dear Mr. North—I much fear that this is the last letter you will ever receive from your old friend. "I'm wearin' awa, Kit! to the land o' the leal!" and that, too, under the influence of a complication of disorders, which have been undermining my constitution (originally a sound and stout one) for upwards of half a century. Look to yourself my much respected lad—and think no more of your rheumatism. That, believe me, is a mere trifle; but think of what you have been doing, since the peace of 1763, (in that year were you born,) in the eating and drinking way, and tremble. I know, my dear Kit, that you never were a gormandizer, nor a sot; neither surely was I—but it matters not—the most abstemious of us all have gone through fearful trials, and I have not skill in figures to cast up the poisonous contents of my hapless stomach for nearly threescore years. You would not know me now; I had not the slightest suspicion of myself in the looking-glass this morning. Such a face! so wan and wo-begone! No such person drew Priam's curtains at dead of night, or could have told him half his Troy was burned.

Well—hear me come to the point. I remember now, perfectly well, that I have been out of sorts all my lifetime; and the causes of my continual illness have this day been revealed to me. May my melancholy fate be a warning to you, and all your dear contributors, a set of men whom the world could ill spare at this crisis. Mr. Editor—I HAVE BEEN POISONED.

You must know that I became personally acquainted a few weeks ago, quite accidentally, with that distinguished chemist, well known in our metropolis by the name of "Death in the Pot."* He volunteered a visit to me at breakfast, last Thursday, and I accepted him. Just as I had poured out the first cup of tea, and was extending it graciously towards him, he looked at me, and with a low, hoarse, husky voice, like Mr. Kean's, asked me if I were not excessively ill? I had not had the least suspicion of being so—but there was a terrible something in "Death in the Pot's" face which told me I was a dead woman. I immediately got up—I mean strove to get up, to ring the bell for a clergyman—but I fainted away. On awaking from my swoon, I beheld "Death in the Pot" still staring with his fateful eyes—and croaking out, half in soliloquy, half in tête-a-tête, "There is not a life in London worth ten year's purchase." I implored him to speak plainly, and for God's sake not to look at me so malagrugorously—and plainly enough he did then speak to be sure—"MRS. TROLLOPE, YOU ARE POISONED."

"Who," cried I out convulsively, "who has perpetrated the foul deed? On whose guilty head will lie my innocent blood? Has it been from motives of private revenge? Speak, Mr. Accum†—speak! Have you any proofs of a conspiracy?" "Yes, Madam, I have proofs, damning proofs. Your wine-merchant, your brewer, your baker, your confectioner, your grocer, aye, your very butcher are in league against you; and, Mrs. Trollope, YOU ARE POISONED!" "When—Oh! when was the fatal dose administered? Would an emetic be of no avail? Could you not yet administer a——" But here my voice was choked, and nothing was audible, Mr. North, but the sighs and sobs of your poor Trollope.

At last I became more composed—and Mr. Accum asked me what was, in general, the first thing I did on rising from bed in the morning. Alas! I felt that it was no time for delicacy, and I told him at once, that it was to take off a bumper of brandy for a complaint in my stomach. He asked to look at the bottle. I brought it forth from the press in my own number, that tall square tower-like bottle, Mr. North, so green to the eye and smooth to the grasp. You know the bottle well—it belonged to my mother before me. He put it to his nose—he poured out a driblet into a teaspoon as cautiously as if it had been the black drop—he tasted it—and again repeated these terrible words," MRS. TROLLOPE, YOU ARE POISONED. It has," he continued, "a peculiar disagreeable smell, like the breath of habitual drunkards." "Oh! thought I, has it come to this! The smell ever seemed to my unsuspecting soul most fragrant and delicious." "Death in the Pot" then told me, that the liquid I had been innocently drinking every morn for thirty years was not brandy at all, but a vile distillation of British molasses over wine lees, rectified over quick-lime, and mixed with saw-dust. And this a sad, solitary, unsuspecting spinster had been imbibing as brandy for so many years! A gleam of comfort now shot across my brain—I told Mr. Accum that I had, during my whole life, been in the habit of taking a smallish glass of Hollands before going to bed, which I fain hoped might have the effect of counteracting the bad effects of the forgery that had been committed against me. I produced the bottle—the white globular one you know. "Death in the Pot" tried and tasted—and alas! instead of Hollands, pronounced it vile British malt spirit, fined by a solution of sub-acetate of lead, and then a solution of alum—and strengthened with grains of paradise, Guinea pepper, capsicum, and other acrid and aromatic substances. These are learned words—but they made a terrible impression upon my memory. Mr. Accum is a most amiable man, I well believe—but he is a stranger to pity. "Mrs. Trollope, YOU HAVE BEEN POISONED," was all he would utter. Had the brandy and Hollands been genuine there would have been no harm—but they were *imitation*, and "YOU ARE POISONED."

Feeling myself very faint, I asked, naturally enough for a woman in my situation, for a glass of wine. It was brought—but Mr. Accum was at hand to snatch the deadly draught from my lips. He tasted what used to be called my genuine old port,

> "And in the scowl of heaven his face
> "Grew black as he was sipping."

"It is spoiled elder wine—rendered astringent by oak-wood, saw-dust, and the

* Frederick Accum, Operative Chemist, &c.
† Death in the Pot.

husks of filberts—lead and arsenic, madam, are——" but my ears tingled and I heard no more. I confessed to the amount of six glasses a-day of this hellish liquor—pardon my warmth—and that such had been my allowance for many years. My thirst was now intolerable, and I beseeched a glass of beer. It came, and "Death in the Pot" detected at once the murderous designs of the brewer. Coculus indicus, Spanish juice, hartshorn shavings, orange powder, copperas, opium, tobacco, nux vomica—such were the shocking words he kept repeating to himself—and then again, "MRS. TROLLOPE IS POISONED." "May I not have a single cup of tea, Mr. Accum," I asked imploringly, and the chemist shook his head. He then opened the tea-caddy, and emptying its contents, rubbed my best green tea between his hard horny palms. "Sloe-leaves, and white-thorn leaves, madam, coloured with Dutch pink, and with the fine green bloom of verdigris! Much, in the course of your regular life, you must have swallowed!" "Might I try the coffee?" Oh! Mr. North, Mr. North, you know my age, and never once, during my whole existence, have I tasted coffee. I have been deluded by pease and beans, sand, gravel, and vegetable powder! Mr. Accum called it sham coffee, most infamous stuff, and unfit for human food! Alas! the day that I was born! In despair I asked for a glass of water, and just as the sparkling beverage was about to touch my pale quivering lips, my friend, for I must call him so in spite of every thing, interfered, and tasting it, squirted it out of his mouth, with a most alarming countenance. "It comes out of a lead cistern—it is a deadly poison." Here I threw myself on my knees before this inexorable man, and cried, "Mr. Death in the Pot, is there in heaven, on earth, or the waters under the earth, any one particle of matter that is not impregnated with death? What means this desperate mockery? For mercy's sake give me the very smallest piece of bread and cheese, or I can support myself no longer. Are we, or are we not, to have a morsel of breakfast this day?" He cut off about an inch long piece of cheese from that identical double Gloucester that you yourself, Mr. North, chose for me, on your last visit to London, and declared that it had been rendered most poisonous by the anotta used to colour it. "There is here, Mrs. Trollope, a quantity of red lead. Have you, madam, never experienced, after devouring half a pound of this cheese, an indescribable pain in the region of the abdomen and of the stomach, accompanied with a feeling of tension, which occasioned much restlessness, anxiety, and repugnance to food? Have you never felt, after a Welsh rabbit of it, a very violent cholic?" "Yes! yes!—often, often," I exclaimed. "And did you use pepper and mustard?" "I did even so." "Let me see the castors." I rose from my knees—and brought them out. He puffed out a little pepper into the palm of his hand, and went on as usual, "This, madam, is spurious pepper altogether—it is made up of oil cakes, (the residue of linseed, from which the oil has been pressed,) common clay, and, perhaps, a small portion of Cayenne pepper (itself probably artificial or adulterated) to make it pungent. But now for the mustard"—at this juncture the servant maid came in, and I told her that I was poisoned—she set up a prodigious scream, and Mr. Accum let fall the mustard pot on the carpet. But it is needless for me to prolong the shocking narrative. They assisted me to get into bed, from which I never more expect to rise. My eyes have been opened, and I see the horrors of my situation. I now remember the most excruciating cholic, and divers other pangs which I thought nothing of at the time, but which must have been the effect of the delcterious solids and liquids which I was daily introducing into my stomach. It appears that I have never, so much as once, either eat or drank a real thing—that is, a thing being what it pretended to be. Oh! the weight of lead and copper that has passed through my body! Oh! too, the gravel and the sand! But it is impossible to deceive me now. This very evening some bread was brought to me. Bread! I cried out indignantly—Take the vile deception out of my sight. Yes, my dear Kit, it was a villanous loaf of clay and alum! But my resolution is fixed, and I hope to die in peace. Henceforth, I shall not allow one particle of matter to descend into my stomach! Already I feel myself "of the earth, earthy." Mr. Accum seldom leaves my bed side—and yesterday brought with him several eatables and drinkables, which he assured me he had analyzed, subjected to the test-act, and found them to be conformists. But I have no trust in chemistry. His quarter-loaf looked lik a chip cut off the corner of a stone block. It was a manifest *sham loaf*. After being deluded in my Hollands, bit in my brandy, and having found my muffins a mockery, never more shall I be thrown off my guard. I am waxing

weaker and weaker—so farewell! Bewildering indeed has been the destiny of

SUSANNA TROLLOPE.

P. S.—I have opened my mistress's letter to add, that she died this evening about a quarter past eight, in excruciating torments. SALLY ROGERS.

FROM THE RICHMOND ENQUIRER.

Penitentiary System in the United States.

NO. III.

This institution is objected to by some, because there are comparatively few crimes committed under the laws of the United States, and they should be punished by death, to strike terror into others. This is an erroneous idea, founded in theory, and ought to be regarded as resulting from a mind narrow and confined, without any knowledge of human nature. The fewer crimes the better for the system; and the more certain the punishment, the greater will be the terror. This opinion is supported (I believe) by every modern writer on criminal law; some of whom were profound men and able writers. That it is the certainty and not the severity of the punishment, that keeps vice in check, must be obvious to every rational understanding. This system had its origin in the United States, though this was not the only country that viewed with abhorrence the old and cruel punishment, which had so long prevailed among the nations, styling themselves Christian. Simultaneous with, or before a mild and more certain system was effected in this country, Joseph II. of Germany, ceased to punish with death, any crime perpetrated in his dominions. *Treason*, considered the most hideous and dangerous of all crimes, was punished with confinement; and we are told, that during the reign of this prince, fewer crimes were committed than at any time or under any prince, previous to his day. Had the system been understood then, it is highly probable that a code of criminal laws would have been introduced, much to the credit of that country, as being the means of rendering to Europe the most useful and benevolent institutions, that ever crowned the labours of her councils with success.

Others object to the system, because it does not produce a general reformation in the convicts, nor deter others from their wicked course of life. It is not my intention to maintain, that reformation is general or ought to be expected. The justice and certainty of the punishment is what I seek. This is all that is asked of the government. When obtained, nothing more can be reasonably expected: it has done its part—the culprits must do theirs. They have the opportunity; the means are yet before them, to work out their salvation; they have been taught good lessons, and a benevolent country has extended to them an abundant opportunity of reclaiming their characters, and becoming respectable and useful members of society. They owe those blessings to a government, whose power is vested in the people for the good of the whole—a blessing denied in all other countries, let their boasted professions to freedom and equal right be what they may.

Shall we, the citizens of the only country who stand in the way of universal monarchy and slavery, remain indifferent to the cries of humanity, and persist in unjust and tyrannical laws, when we so much condemn those very nations, because their unnatural and oppressive institutions are staring us in the face? or shall we set to work, as some of the states have done, to better the condition of our citizens, and not inflict the same punishment on all offenders without regard to the nature, circumstance, causes, malignity and depravity of the crime? In a country like this, where the feelings of the people are alive to humanity, it is with difficulty that the punishment can be inflicted; frequent pardons are granted, and this, together with the immoral lessons which are acquired while they are confined in the common jails, where no subordination and discipline are enforced, or attention paid to their moral habits, are let loose on society, more adroit in villany than before. Consequently the laws, by their very severity become a nullity, and of course demoralizing in effect.

Why then should there be a dissenting voice in opposition to a change in our criminal laws? Can it be that a cruel and inhuman punishment will prevent the increase of crimes? If so, it is strange indeed that Great Britain has not become the most virtuous and honest country in the world. The late accounts from the Old Bailey exhibit a deplorable state of things in relation to her moral character. There we see hundreds convicted of capital offences, in the course of a few months, and most of them executed. Still crimes increase. In Virginia, there were fewer crimes perpetrated between the years 1800 and 1815, than at any preceding fifteen years since the formation of our present government,

in proportion to its population. This is a sufficient inducement for the proper authorities in this happy country to try the experiment.

The *system once introduced*, the next inquiry will be a *proper government* well organized to insure its prosperity. Here is the point where the greatest and most serious error may be committed; and here too is the point where the best wisdom should be exercised with a sound discretion; in order that the same mistaken policy shall not creep into the system, that has in most of the institutions on this continent. They err as much too much on the side of mercy, as we have in cruelty. The founders of those institutions have split upon this rock: and I fear it will be a long and difficult matter to remedy the defect and produce a thorough reformation. Make the laws simple and perspicuous, equal in their operation (not to punish one offender more severely than another for the same crime); or in other words, give no latitude to the jury. Let it be their province to find the fact, and let the law prescribe the penalty, which would then be as certain as the proof of guilt. The culprit would know the law, and in many instances by being acquainted with the punishment before the fact, and seeing the certainty with which his liberty and comfort as a citizen would be forfeited, would be deterred from the perpetration.

Officers for such an institution should be discreetly selected, and made responsible for their conduct; there should be none on *courtesy*—and no more of them than can be constantly and usefully employed. They should consist of a superintendent, with a board of directors, composed of any number not exceeding seven members, to act as counsellors and advisers, and assist in the organization of the government and police of the institution. This board and the superintendent should have the whole control of the affairs of the institution, in conformity to the general law of its creation. Their powers should be co-ordinate, and nothing effected without the consent of both. A prompt and rigid subordination is all important; and to prevent the abuse of power in either, an appeal should be permitted to some higher authority, where there is a difference of opinion. The subordinate officers should be entirely subject to the superintendent, who ought to be accountable and responsible for the good government and management of the institution. Upon the choice of this officer much depends; therefore, a wise discretion should be exercised in selecting him for his moral, humane, intelligent, mechanical, prompt, and industrious character and deportment, with a general knowledge of business.

A penitentiary, thus organized and put into operation with the useful mechanical arts, carried on under the superintendence of a man who has his character and reputation at stake, with a philanthropic mind, would not fail of being useful to the country and the convict; a monument of lasting impression, showing the inconsistency of a country's making a high profession of republican and Christian precepts, and yet continue in the cruel practice of putting to death its citizens for frivolous offences, without a regard to justice or to reason.

BECCARIA.

VARIATION OF THE COMPASS.

Mr. Poulson—I have been solicited by several of your subscribers to request you to insert, in the American Daily Advertiser, the following information, which is interesting to surveyors and to the landholders of the United States.

It appears, from the notes of an eminent surveyor, that in the year 1710, in Pennsylvania, the variation of the magnetic needle was 8 *deg.* 25 *min.* W. according to lines run by Mr. Scull in that year.

	Deg.	*Min.*
In 1793, *R. Brookes* observed it to be	1 :	30 W.
1793, *Mr. Humphreys* of Maryland	1 :	30 W.

1794, the needle was observed to recede westward by *R. Brookes*, of Philadelphia, *Mr. Humphreys*, of Maryland, and other scientific men in Virginia.

In 1802, it was known to *Reading Howell*, of Philadelphia, to have receded westward, and was then more than 1 *deg.* 30 *min.* W.

In 1804, it was noted, by several men of science, to be 2 *degrees* west.

In 1805, it was observed by George Gillet, surveyor general of Connecticut, at Hebron, in that state, to be 4 *deg.* 50 *min.* W.

In 1813, the same gentleman noted it at 5 *deg.* 20 *min.* W.

So it appears, that the variation of the magnetic needle, westward, has been increasing since 1794, at a mean rate of nearly *three minutes* per annum. This is also the annual mean rate of progressive change in variation, according to *S. Thorn*, deputy surveyor general of the state of New York. In 1813, according to the same progressive motion, it must be 2 *deg.* 27 *min.* and is yet increasing westward.

I have observed a difference of *eight minutes* in the magnetic variation, from *four* o'clock, P. M. to *eight* o'clock, A. M. only sixteen hours apart. This is called diurnal variation, which, in the opinion of *Robert Patterson*, may sometimes amount to near *fifteen minutes*.

Therefore, in finding the correct quantity of variation, respect must be paid to the heat and to the state of the atmosphere, as thunder gusts, aurora borealis, cold damp air, and other natural phenomena.

From the foregoing observations and matters of fact, it is of the first importance, that in all surveys, the variation of the magnetic needle should be correctly ascertained. I presume, therefore, that the following methods will be acceptable to gentlemen engaged in this scientific pursuit.

To find a true meridian line supposed to extend to both poles (and also crossing the equator at right angles) and on all parts of such line to find how much the magnetic needle differeth from that line.

Method 1st.—By an azimuth, a good time piece is necessary if an horizon cannot be observed.

Method 2d.—By amplitudes, an horizon is necessary by this method if a good time piece is not at hand.

Method 3d.—With a good sextant and a natural horizon, or a reflecting artificial one, take the sun's altitude at meridian, and with a time piece determine the precise time—all shadows then point out the true meridian.

Method 4th.—By the rays of the sun let through a small hole in a window shutter or wall, into a dark room. Let fall a perpendicular from such hole, let the luminous spot be received on a horizontal floor, (which may be proved by a spirit level)—draw concentric circles, whose centre shall be the perpendicular aforesaid—then at meridian, mark the solar spot on the floor, or about two hours A. M. and P. M. mark the spot on the same circle—bisect and draw the meridian, allowing for the difference of declination in the elapsed time.

Method 5th.—A simple mode in the fields or other place convenient. Set up two poles nearly east and west, fasten at the top of them another pole, horizontal within 20 or 30 degrees, so that the polar star may be seen under it—the eye placed conveniently at the distance of from 12 to 20 feet—then with a plumb line suspended observe the greatest distance of the polar star east or west. With a surveying compass or an azimuth compass, the bearing of the place of sight and the perpendicular line of observation may be taken—the needle will then show its own variation, allowing the semidiameter of the star's apparent motion, 2 deg. 1 min. 42 sec.—or the greatest distance east and west of the polar star may be observed with the plumb line, and the space on the pole bisected; let fall a perpendicular therefrom, take the bearing by a compass as before, and the needle shall point out its own variation.

If the night is windy and the plumb is not steady, it may be steadied in clay puddle, morasses, &c. In the place of sight should be a hole of proper size in wood or metal, and when observed by the compass, a plumb line suspended or a perpendicular erected thereunto. An assistant may hold a light, so that the line of observation may be seen more distinctly.

These methods I have thought sufficiently accurate for the purposes of surveying, and hope the simple method may, in skilful hands, be useful in its place.

THOMAS WHITNEY,
Mathematical Instrument Maker.

Philadelphia, February 19, 1814.

P. S. I intend to state some inquiries and observations relative to the dip of the magnetic needle, &c. when time can be allowed from my regular business.

GEOLOGY.

Extract of a Letter from Caleb Atwater, esq. to the Editors of the Weekly Recorder, dated Circleville, (Ohio,) June 10.

"I have sixteen drawings of impressions of tropical and other plants, found at Zanesville, in digging the canal. Among these may be seen the leaf of the cocoa nut; bearing palm leaf, twenty inches in length; the roots, trunks, limbs, and leaves of the bamboo; the trunks, limbs, leaves, and even blossoms of the cassia. The leaves even of the blossoms are fresh, uninjured, and entire, showing very conclusively that they grew near the spot where they are now found. But what changes must have taken place in our climate, since the cassia flourished here! Has the earth changed its axis and its poles? or has an accumulation of ice within the polar circles produced a change in our once mild climate? With Newton I agree it is unphilosophical to account for any phenomenon in nature, and produce the effect. If this climate has been growing colder during three centuries, in the same ratio that it has within the last thirty years, we need not look further for a cause, than the greater prevalence of that current of air rushing across our inland seas, Erie, Michigan, Huron, Superior, &c. from the regions of perennial frost. My drawings were done by Mr. Wm. A. Adams, a young man of much promise, of Zanesville, and they were accompanied by a detailed account of them, by Ebenezer Granger, esq."

Extract of a Letter from Mr. E. T. Jenckes, supercargo of the brig Viper, Rea, to a gentleman in Providence, (R. I.) dated Valparaiso, December 2d, 1819.

"An English brig arrived a few days since at Valparaiso, and reports that in the latitude of 59, S. longitude not yet ascertained, she fell in with, and coasted along, as far as 62, S. a body of land, and actually landed on the same. In a former passage round Cape Horn, the captain discovered this land, and on reporting the same at Valparaiso, was laughed at. He this time provided himself with instruments, &c. and went in search of it, and accordingly found it. The captain of the English frigate Andromeda, on her return to Europe, intends surveying it."

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, August 19, 1820. No. 8.

ERROR CORRECTED.

THE Publishers have for some time been at a loss how to account for the fact, that while their subscriptions have increased more rapidly than they hoped for, they have received but few payments. It has occurred to them as a mode of explaining both circumstances, that their patrons may have subscribed under the impression that no payment was expected for the paper. This is, however, by no means the case; and it is earnestly requested that the mistake may be rectified as soon as possible.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of a resolution of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, passed June 20, 1820, authorizing a committee, consisting of the President and Curators, to publish such communications to the society as they may think proper—it was resolved by the committee, that the following be printed in the National Recorder, published by Littell & Henry, at Philadelphia.

By order of the Curators.

I. C. JONES.

ON THE ALDERNEY COW.

Read 20th October, 1818.

Germantown, 10th Mo. 20th, 1818.

To the President and Members of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture.

With this you will receive a pound of butter made from the Alderney cow, imported in 1815, by Maurice and William Wurts, and now in my possession. She calved on the 13th of last month, and is now in fine condition, running on excellent pasture of orchard grass and white clover, and yields on an average about 14 quarts of milk per day. From this during the week ending the 7th inst. we obtained 10 quarts of cream, which produced 8 lbs. 2 oz. of butter, and the week succeeding 10½ quarts, which gave 8¾ lbs. of the quality of the sample sent. You will perceive it is of so rich a yellow that it might be suspected some foreign colouring matter was added to it, but you may rely on it this is not the case. I may add, that one of the good properties of this valuable breed of cattle is, the ease with which the cream is churned, requiring but a few minutes to convert it into butter. When a proper opportunity occurs, I shall endeavour to ascertain the quantity and quality of butter to be obtained per week from the Kerry cow, imported this summer from Ireland, and the Brittany cow from France, both of which breeds I have pure.

I remain, very respectfully,

REUBEN HAINES.

P. S.—I received lately from De Witt Clinton, president of the New York Society for promoting Agriculture, a small parcel of wheat, found in a wild state near Rome, in Oneida county, and supposed by him to be indigenous in New York. I sowed yesterday one-sixteenth of a bushel on the one-thirty-second part of an acre of good ground, and next year hope to give you an account of its produce. It is said to "have succeeded admirably this year, and appears to be proof against winter, hulling and smut." With this I hand you a sample.

Additional Information relative to the Produce of the Alderney Cow, imported by M. and W. Wurts, in the year 1815, mentioned in the 4th volume of our Memoirs.

Read 19th January, 1819.

This cow is a full bred Alderney, as will appear from the following certificate:

"*Brixton, Surry, 7th Oct.* 1815.

"I hereby certify, that the cow shipped by Maurice Wurts & Co. in the Catherine and Edward, captain Vickery, has been raised by me from two full blooded Alderneys which I imported, and that the bull shipped by them in the same vessel, was imported from Alderney by Mr. Allmot of this place.

(Signed) "RICHARD PLATT."

She is now 5 years and 8 months old, and has had the following calves: 1st, a bull, Twelfth month, 15th, 1815, during her passage from England—2d, a heifer, Twelfth month, 3d, 1816—3d, a bull, Eleventh month, 13th, 1817—and 4th, a heifer, Ninth month, 25th, 1818; all of which are in my possession and likely to do well, and I hope will tend to improve the quality of the butter sent to our market, already justly celebrated.

On the 17th of Tenth month, three weeks after the last calving, we churned 10½ quarts of cream, collected from one week's milk, which produced 8¾ lbs. of the richest and yellowest butter I ever saw; and yesterday, at the end of sixteen weeks upon winter food (brewers' grains and hay, with about one quart of Indian meal daily), we obtained 7¾ lbs. from a week's gathering, of which the following is a detailed statement:

1819.			qts.	hf. pt.
1st mo.	9	evening	4	1
	10	morning	5	1
		evening	4	1
	11	morning	5	2
		evening	4	2
	12	morning	5	2
		evening	4	2
	13	morning	6	0
		evening	4	1
	14	morning	5	1
		evening	5	0
	15	morning	5	1
		evening	4	0
	16	morning	4	1
Total			67	3

of milk, yielded 8 quarts 1 pint of cream, which made 7¾ lbs. full weight of butter, the quality of which the members will have an opportunity of judging at the annual dinner of the society this afternoon.

Very respectfully,

REUBEN HAINES.

R. PETERS, *President of Phil. Soc. &c. &c.*

CHESTER AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY.

Westchester, (Penn.) June 21, 1820.

The following interesting document, giving an account of the proceedings of the Chester County Agricultural Society, is well worthy the attention of our agricultural readers.—*Ed. Rural Mag.*

At a meeting of the Agricultural Society of Chester county, held at the court house, Westchester, Sixth month, 10th, 1820, Dr. William Darlington, vice president, in the chair; Isaac Sharpless, secretary; the committee of correspondence produced to the meeting the following report, which being read, was unanimously adopted, viz.

REPORT.

The committee appointed by the society to propose plans for its adoption, believing that the objects which may properly claim the attention of the association, are very numerous, are therefore free to suggest, whether it would not be advantageous to institute several standing committees, each of which should cultivate a particular department of agriculture, or some of the sciences that may minister to its improvement.

If the society should approve of this plan, we propose that these committees should be made up by voluntary associations among the members as far as practicable, each being at liberty to join himself to such as he may choose, and all vacancies and deficiencies in the numbers of said committees should be filled by the presiding officer. They should in no case consist of less than five members, whose names should be entered on the minutes of the society; and they should each have a secretary to receive communications, to arrange and digest the scattered materials they may collect, and to lay before the society such as may be thought worthy of its attention.

All books, models, drawings, or specimens, that any of these committees procure in the course of their labours, shall be kept in such place as it should direct.

It is recommended that the formation of the following standing committees be authorized at the time—to be renewed at the first stated meeting in each year.

1st. A committee on farm buildings, fences of implements and husbandry. To study the improvement of houses, barns, barnyards and out-buildings, both as it regards the plan and materials. To examine the relative cost of the different kinds of fences, and the best methods of constructing or raising them. To make improvements in the implements of husbandry, and to introduce such as may be made in other places.

2d. A committee on the veterinary art.—To investigate the nature and origin of

the disease of domestic animals, and endeavour to ascertain the best methods of prevention and cure.

3d. A committee on natural history, particularly mineralogy and entomology. To develop the mineral productions of the country, and to ascertain its geological structure, partly for the purpose of designating the kind of soil in each neighbourhood. To examine the habits of such insects as injure the crops of the farmer, with a view of discovering the means of destroying them, or preventing their ravages; and such other branches of natural history as are interesting to the agriculturist.

4th. A committee on political economy. To attend to the political interests of agriculture, and examine the manner in which public measures affect it. To inquire into the utility of public improvements, such as canals, bridges, and turnpike roads, and into the means of giving the agricultural class its due weight in the government.

5th. A committee on domestic animals. To inquire after and introduce the best kind, to endeavour to ascertain the most economical and the best methods of rearing, managing and feeding them, together with facts on the relative advantages of the employment of horses and oxen for labour.

6th. A committee on grasses, grains and roots. To inquire after, and recommend the best and most profitable kinds, the time and manner of sowing and planting, with the most proper quantity of each per acre, also the previous preparation of the ground and seed, together with the best method of culture.

7th. A committee on manures. To endeavour to ascertain the relative advantages of barnyard manure, plaister, lime, burnt clay, ashes, and all other kinds of manure, with the time and manner of application of each, whether best applied on ploughed or grass lands, on the surface or ploughed in, deep or shallow; together with the best methods of accumulating and preparing barnyard and stable manure.

8th. A committee on fruit and forest trees. To endeavour to ascertain the best and most useful fruits of all kinds, with the best method of making wine, and cider, &c. To examine the causes of the premature decay of fruit trees, with a view to their preservation. To ascertain the best time of cutting forest trees, as it respects the durability of the wood, under ground, or exposed to the weather; also for fuel.

9th. A committee on irrigation and draining. To ascertain the most profitable times of irrigation, with its uses. Also, the best and most effectual methods of constructing drains.

10th. A committee on horticulture. To ascertain the best and most approved methods of managing kitchen gardens, attend to the introduction of useful vegetables, modes of culture, &c.; and also to promote good taste in the planning and arrangement of gardens generally.

We further propose that the society recommend to each of its practical members, regularly to enter into writing, the preparation and state of the ground, at the time of sowing or planting each crop, the quantity and kind of manure and seed per acre, particulars relative to the weather, the process of culture, the times of sowing and gathering, and the amount of produce per acre, with such other particulars as may be thought worthy of notice, each part of which to be annually laid before them, in order that such facts as are deemed worthy of preservation, may be laid before the society.

Resolved, That the members of the society generally, and such others as are friendly to the objects of the association, be requested to furnish the several committees above named with such information relative to the subjects for which they are appointed as may be in their possession.

WM. DARLINGTON, *V. Pres't.*
ISAAC SHARPLESS, *Sec'ry.*

Political Economy.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

OF SALES.

From Say's Traité d'Economie Politique.

Those who are engaged in various branches of industry, are accustomed to say that the difficulty is not in producing, but in selling; that there would be always merchandise enough produced, if a ready sale could be made of it. When they get rid of their products slowly and with much difficulty and little profit, they say that *money is scarce;* the object of their wishes is a quick consumption, which increases sales and sustains the price. But if they are asked what circumstances and what causes are favourable to the sale of their products, it would be seen that the greater number of them have only confused notions upon the subject, that they do not well observe the facts, and explain them still worse; they take for granted what is very doubtful, wish for what is directly opposed to their interests, and seek from the public authority a protection, fruitful in evil results.

In order to form opinions more just and

of a general application, in relation to what opens a vent to the products of industry, let us follow an analysis of facts best known and most certain; let us compare them with what we have already learned by the same method, and we shall perhaps discover new and important truths, proper to enlighten the desires of industrious men, and of a nature to make sure the steps of those governments who are desirous of protecting them.

The man whose industry is applied to giving value to things, by creating in them some useful property, can hope that this value will be appreciated and rewarded only when others have the means of procuring it. In what do these means consist? In other values, other products, the fruits of their industry, of their capitals, of their land: from whence it results (although at first view it seems paradoxical), that it is production which opens a vent for products.

If a shopkeeper should say, *it is not other products that I want in exchange for mine, it is money*, it would be easy to prove to him that his purchaser can have procured the money in no other way, but by means of the products which he has created. When he has bartered his corn for money, and this money for your goods, he has in fact exchanged the corn for the goods. You say that it is money that you want; with this money, however, that the farmer has paid you, you have bought the raw materials necessary in your business, or have purchased the necessaries of life. You must perceive that it was not money that you really wanted, and that in fact you have bought other products with yours.*

In all this it is not money that is produced. It has only been made once, and that was by the worker of the mines who placed it in circulation. The thousand changes that it has gone through since that time have not increased its value; it has only been able to buy any commodity after it has been bought itself; and it has been bought simply in exchange for another value, which was a product.

Therefore, when it is said that *sales are dull, because money is scarce*, the means are taken for the cause; an error is committed, arising from the fact that almost all products are turned into money before they are exchanged for other merchandise; and because an article that appears so often seems to the vulgar to be the end of the transactions of which it is only the intermediate agent. We should not say that sales are dull, because money is scarce, but because other products are so. There is always money enough to serve for the circulation and reciprocal exchange of other values, when these values really exist. When money is wanting for the body of affairs, it is easily supplied, and the necessity of a supply is an indication of a favourable circumstance—it is a proof that there has been much value produced with which it is desirable to purchase a great amount of other values. The intermediate merchandise (money), which facilitates all these exchanges, is replaced in such cases with the greatest facility by means† with which merchants are well acquainted, and money soon flows in, for the same reason that every kind of merchandise proceeds to the place where it is wanted. It is a good sign when money is wanted for the transactions of business, as it is a good sign when storehouses are wanted for goods.

When a superabounding quantity of some particular kind of merchandise cannot find purchasers, it is so far from being the want of money that stops the sale of it, that the sellers of this merchandise would be happy to receive the value of it in such commodities as they wish to consume, estimated at the current prices; they would not ask for money, and would have no need of it, because they only desired it in order to transform it into commodities for their consumption.‡

What I have just said may be applied to every case in which merchandise or service is offered: they will always find a more ready sale where there are greater values produced, because it is in those places that the substance is created with which they

* If it were otherwise, how could there be now bought in a single year in France five or six times as much as was purchased in the whole reign of the miserable and unfortunate Charles VI? It is evidently because five or six times as much value is annually produced, and that these values are bought the one by the other.

† Such as bills of exchange, post notes, letters of credit, &c. &c.

‡ By their consumption, I understand all that they use of what nature soever, as well that which is unproductive and satisfies the wants of themselves and families, as that which is reproductive and supplies their industry. A manufacturer of wool, and a manufacturer of cotton, consume at the same time wool for themselves and for their manufactures; but whatever be the end of their consumption, whether it be to reproduce, or to enjoy, they seek to buy what they consume with what they produce.

are bought—I mean *value*. Money serves only a momentary use in the double exchange; when the business is finished, it is always found that products have paid for products.

It is worth while to remark, that from the moment a product is created, it offers a vent for other products to the full amount of its value. In fact when the producer has finished any thing, his greatest desire is to sell it, that it may not be idle in his hands. But he is in no less haste to get rid of the money which the sale procures him, that he may not lose by *that* being idle. Now, he can only get rid of the money by buying some product with it. We see, then, that the single fact of the formation of a product, opens, from that moment, a sale for other products.

This being the case, some will say, how does it happen that there is such a prodigious difficulty, especially when the situation of affairs is not very prosperous, in the circulation of the products of industry, from whence it arises that but little profit is made.

This is a very natural question, but the answer to it cannot be given in few words: it is voluminous, and will be found spread throughout all this work, which shows what is favourable or unfavourable to sales, in showing what is so to production. I shall in this place merely observe, that the deficient circulation of a product, or even of a number of products, is entirely occasioned by some channels of industry being choked up. There is then found in those channels a greater quantity of products than the general necessities require, and that this is the case because other channels so far from being choked up, are provided with but few products, which, on account of their scarcity, are sought after as much as the others are neglected. It is because the *products wanted* have suffered, that the *superabundant products* find no sale, and that their value is reduced. In plainer language, a great many people buy less because they have gained* less; and they have gained less, because they have found difficulties in the employment of their means of production, or because the means themselves were wanting.

Thus we may remark, that the times in which certain commodities do not sell well, are precisely those when other things rise to an excessive price;† and as these high prices ought to have been a sufficient motive to induce their production, there must have been greater causes or violent means, such as natural or political disasters, the rapacity or unskilfulness of governments, forcibly to keep up such a penury on one side, which causes a repletion on the other; when this cause of the political disease is at an end, the means of production are applied to the vacant channels, and the product of these absorbs the overflow of the others; the equilibrium is restored, and would rarely cease to exist if the means of production were left entirely at liberty.‡

The producer who should believe that his consumers were composed not only of those who also produce, but likewise of other classes who do not produce any thing *material*, such as public officers, physicans, lawyers, divines, &c. and who should thence draw the inference that there are other vents besides those opened by persons who produce, he would, I say, show very clearly that he judged from the surface, and did not penetrate to the bottom of things. In fact, the public officer who carries his money to a shopkeeper, has received it himself from a producer: for with what value has his salary been paid? with the contributions of individuals undoubtedly. And with what have these individuals purchased the money that they have contributed? with the values they have produced. If the man in office makes use of this money to buy the objects of his consumption, he substitutes himself for the private producer, who is thus prevented from purchasing for himself what he would have obtained with his product. It is, however, with the fruit of the industry of this

* Gains are composed in all situations, from the greatest merchant to the lowest labourer, of the part that they obtain of the values produced. The proportion in which this distribution takes place, forms the subject of the second book of this work.

† It is easy for every reader to apply these general observations to the countries and periods of time within his knowledge. We had a very striking example in France in the years 1811, 1812, and 1813, when colonial products, corn and many other products, bore the most extravagant prices, while many other commodities were much reduced and met with no advantageous sales.

‡ These considerations which are fundamental for every treatise or memoir on commercial matters, and for every operation of the administration relative to the same objects, have been almost unknown till this time. It appears as if truth had only been found by chance, and that the good route has been chosen by government (when this has luckily been the case) only by a confused feeling of its propriety, without being themselves convinced of it, and without the means of convincing others.

private man, that the purchases have been made, and it is not less certain that even those who do not themselves produce, can only buy with products.*

☞ Some interesting consequences from the foregoing principles, will be published next week.

Miscellany.

From the New York Literary Journal.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

In my last† I stated the indifference to classical literature which existed in this country, and at the same time endeavoured to expose some of the causes to which it might be referred. The present shall be devoted to a few general observations on the advantages to be derived from the study of the Greek and Roman writers.

It must appear rather a singular fact to those who discredit the value of this species of knowledge, that the study of ancient literature, commenced by Petrarch, and prosecuted by his successors, was the principal agent in bringing about the restoration of learning in modern times. Amid the mysticism of the philosophy which governed Europe during the dark ages, the glory of ancient learning was extinguished. In the fifteenth century a new era in letters commenced, which was principally characterized by the enthusiasm with which the classic authors of antiquity were sought after and studied. Ever since that period, this branch of knowledge has maintained an equally elevated station: it has been cultivated with unceasing ardour in every enlightened nation, and has formed the basis of instruction in all those universities which have sent forth the greatest men. Beside this, if we consult the history of some of the most distinguished individuals the world has ever seen, we shall find them uniformly setting a high value upon their skill in classical learning, and referring much of their excellence to that very source. These are facts which cannot be denied, and the conclusions to be drawn from them are obvious. Either that the most refined nations, as well as individuals, have been labouring under a singular delusion, and are still suffering under it, or there must be some intrinsic excellence in classic erudition, which has thus called forth the approbation and applause of mankind. In the mind of any person not wholly ignorant on this subject, no hesitation can exist.

If the object of education be to teach us rather *how* to think, than *what* to think, as undoubtedly it ought to be, then the study of language is better calculated to fulfil this object, than instruction in any other kind of knowledge; for it at once affords the best possible exercise for every faculty of the mind. Not merely the memory, but the imagination, the judgment, and the reasoning powers, are all called into action, by the selection, combination and arrangement of the different elements, which enter into the structure of a language. Besides, it is impossible to study the language of a people without becoming acquainted with their history, manners, customs and philosophy; and thus, in perusing the classic authors, the mind becomes familiarized with the genius, eloquence, and exploits, of those renowned states of ancient days, whose fame shall be borne on the wing of time down to the remotest generations. Nor is this all: The writings of the ancients abound with the most accurate and sublime views of human nature, viewed either as modified by government, science, and religion, or as unaffected by any of these causes, and descriptive of the species, in every age and country, and under every variety of circumstance and situation. The man who grasps all this, cannot but find his power of attention strengthened, his fancy illumined, and all his mental powers enlarged.

The influence of the abstract sciences in evolving the intellect, is partial and trivial, when compared to this. They bend down the mind to the acquisition of undoubted truths, but leave nothing for ingenuity or fancy to exercise their powers upon. After a proposition is demonstrated, the point which was aimed at is reached, and all exertion then ceases. But this negative disadvantage attending mathematical pursuits, is not all that may be alleged against them. In most persons they have a direct tendency to weaken the force of moral evidence on the mind, at the same time that they destroy, in a great measure, the taste for elegant literature. Almost every one has met with instances of the former, in persons who deny the truth of a moral propo-

* The capitalist who expends the interest that he receives from his capital, expends his part of the products to which his capital has contributed. The second book developes the rules upon which he takes part of the products; and even when he dissipates the principal of his capital, it is always products that he expends, because this capital itself is only products, reserved indeed for a reproductive consumption, but which may easily be spent unproductively, as they always are when they are dissipated.

† See p. 70.

sition, because it is not supported by mathematical evidence. As illustrative of the latter, is the anecdote of a profound mathematician who sagely declared, he could see no beauty in the works of Shakspeare, because "they did not *prove* any thing." These remarks are not penned with a view of degrading this science; it is assuredly useful and necessary to complete a perfect system of education; but when compared with classical learning, it must ever be esteemed only of *secondary* importance.

But the classics are not merely valuable as affording the best exercise to the mind during their acquisition: A knowledge of them is essential to the formation of purity of style and chastity of taste; and it may be asserted that elegant literature never flourished in a nation where the ancient classics were not familiarly known. Italian literature saw her brightest days after her Petrarch and Boccacio had roused the attention of their countrymen to the value of ancient learning. The purest models of English literature have also been formed from the same source. Addison is perhaps the most perfect illustration that could be adduced. He devoted his early years to the constant study of the Greek and Roman writers, and from them caught that genuineness of taste and correctness of style, which have thrown such a charm around his productions, and have constituted him, "one of the best authors since the Augustan age." The United States unfortunately afford a negative argument in favour of the position just laid down. It is a fact, which it were idle to attempt to deny, that many of our best writers, although abounding in forcible and original thoughts, in flashes of vigorous fancy, and in energetic arguments, are yet lamentably defective in that purity of diction, that grace and elegance of style and expression, which characterize the finest efforts of English literature. A stronger proof of corruption of taste, and the vitiation of language which prevails, cannot be demanded, than may be obtained by a reference to the Baccalaureate Addresses delivered by a president of one of our colleges, who, from his commanding situation, one would suppose ought to be looked up to as a model of pure taste, and correct composition.

It is unnecessary to spend much time in pointing out the advantages of classical learning to professional gentlemen. To the divine, every one will admit that it is absolutely indispensable. And what lawyer will be found hardy enough to assert, that his eloquence may not be chastened and elevated, by contemplating the energy and vehemence of Demosthenes, and the majesty and luxuriance of Cicero? And what physician, who has ever soared above the mere quackery of his profession, will not acknowledge, that he considers his knowledge of the languages as one of his most valuable possessions?

Let it not be objected that an adequate knowledge of the contents of ancient authors, may be obtained from translations, and therefore that it is a superfluous expense of time and labour to study the originals. As a refutation of the fact, alleged in this objection, I might safely appeal to the experience of every scholar; indeed, any person who has taken the trouble of examining the translations of the classics, must confess, that the very best of them give but an imperfect conception of an author; while the majority are burlesques upon scholarship and good sense. But, admitting that the *ideas* of an author may be conveyed with sufficient precision into another language, still it is impossible to transfuse into it any correct conception of his *style* and *diction*, which so materially stamp the character of a writer. Volney justly remarks, that "without possessing the language, it is impossible to appreciate either the genius or character of a nation. Interpreters can never supply the defect of a direct communication." (Travels in Syria and Egypt.) It is impossible to catch the spirit of an author, without knowing the language in which his writings are actually embodied. Who would believe that the sublimity of Milton, or the beauties of Shakspeare, could ever be represented in a Dutch or Russian version? The truth is, the language of every nation is peculiar, possessing numberless terms and phrases which cannot be rendered into another language without losing all their force and spirit; and hence translations must necessarily always be defective, if not erroneous, representations of the originals.

Nor let it be objected, that the study of classical learning is unfavourable to virtue. For my own part, I believe its effects to be directly the reverse. What writers abound more than the ancients, in exhortations to the culture of all the moral and social virtues? Where are to be found more powerful incentives to the love of country, filial piety, the practice of temperance, disinterested friendship, than in the writings of Epictetus, Plutarch, Seneca, and Cicero? I believe no man ever rose from the perusal of them, with one virtuous principle corrupted, or one generous propensity un-

strengthened. Besides, the contemplative spirit which classical study in a peculiar manner engenders, and the trains of reflections to which it gives rise, are eminently propitious to the improvement of all the sensibilities and moral tendencies of our nature. But if classical literature be unfavourable to virtue, how comes it to pass that in every country, the men most distinguished for their piety, I mean the clergy, have uniformly patronized it; and the most celebrated of them have been those who drank the deepest at the fountains of ancient learning.

FROM THE RICHMOND ENQUIRER.

Penitentiary System in the United States.

NO. IV.

I shall here consider the construction of the necessary buildings for such an institution. This has been generally overlooked by most of the states (as far as my information extends), and elegance instead of utility has been adopted. There can be no objection to combining both; but at any rate, the one should be paramount to the other, where the system would be benefited by a preference in the construction. It should, in my judgment, be a square block of buildings with dividing walls, making three grand divisions, with a corresponding area to each, separating the convicts agreeably to their classes. This should be a subject of the first importance in the organization of the government; for it is all important in a good police. Its effects can only be appreciated by experience: the lower floors of the buildings intended for workshops, should be large and airy; the upper stories, with arches between each, divided into small apartments to lodge the convicts, where they could have no communication whatever with each other: thus locked up, after working all day, seeing and hearing nothing, they are in a proper condition to reflect on their past conduct, and feel the effect of punishment. They are likewise deprived of the opportunity of giving and receiving lessons in vice and immorality, as well as devising plans for insurrection. The police must be bad indeed to give an opportunity to form such plans in their workshops; nay, it is impossible, without a great declension of duty on the part of their officers.

The classing of the convicts is very important and necessary in a well regulated government: its effects have been clearly demonstrated in the Virginia penitentiary, and if the building was such as desired, its beneficial tendency would be greatly increased.

In some of the northern states they complain exceedingly of their institutions of a similar nature, particularly in New York; and well they may, unless a recent change has been made in their police; it is as much impossible for them to move smoothly on under their present organization, as it would be to have a well regulated and disciplined army, without a skilful general; or to manage a ship of war with success, in time of action, without a commander to direct its movements. There is generally attached to these institutions a group of officers, without a responsible and efficient head to direct their operations. Good governments in all countries, situations, and places, depend on good officers; and they cannot be secured without a corresponding responsibility, and odium attached where there is a misapplied administration.

There has been too much of a sickly and squeamish humanity introduced into the government of these institutions, no doubt from the purest, though very mistaken motives; too much of abstract principles applied in the place of practical reason. It is necessary to the good government of these institutions, that the executive and police officers should have the power to put down obstinate and turbulent conduct in the convicts, with prompt effect.

The frequent and unnecessary visiters from wanton curiosity, and the intercourse between the convicts and their friends, (either in person or by writing), have a strong and pernicious effect upon the best interests and objects of the institutions; that of wanton and *curious visiters* degrade the convict, saps the punishment, and makes it a mockery. To confine felons, and furnish them with all the necessaries of life, in health as well as in sickness, and let them have communication with their friends, to inform, and in return be informed, of health, condition, &c. with all the occurrences of life (as is the case in some of the institutions), renders the system radically defective and unmanageable; this must inevitably be amended, or abandon it altogether.

The foregoing remarks are not visionary ideas of speculation, but the result of deliberate reflection of one who has paid attention to the subject, and endeavoured to become acquainted with human nature; under a belief, that were the United States to adopt the penitentiary system, with

suitable laws for its government, avoiding the rock on which most of such institutions have split, it would be a serious benefit to the nation.

Accept my thanks, sirs, for the indulgence given me by the use of your paper, in this endeavour to promote the objects of humanity. I now leave the subject to be taken up by men of greater talent, and greater leisure. BECCARIA.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

We are not qualified to form an opinion as to what is the best standard of measure, but we think our readers will agree with the writer of the following article from the New York Statesman in his general views.

A late Washington paper mentioned, that the weights and measures used in that city have become so incorrect as to render it necessary to rectify them: and in doing that, it has been proposed by the proper authorities at the seat of government, to take the weights and measures of Maryland, as the most accurate standard. It has for some time been my intention to say something on this subject, and as there is at this moment little to engage the attention, except robberies, piracies, murders, and executions, a more favourable opportunity of accomplishing my purpose may not present itself.

In a great commercial nation like the United States, whatever can facilitate and expedite the transaction of business is conducive to the interest and convenience of the citizen, and therefore worthy of the attention of government. The advantages which have resulted from the uniform national currency, adopted by the government of the United States, have been extensively realized, and form a powerful argument in favour of similar regulations and improvements with regard to weights and measures, which in every point of view are of no less importance. Our national currency, both in simplicity and beauty, far surpasses that of any other country; the coins of the United States are superior to all others in the uniform principle of their value, the elegance of the devices they bear, and the neatness of the mintage. It is truly astonishing that England, which has for many centuries been the greatest commercial nation in the world, should have for so long a time retained such an irregular, inconvenient, and bungling currency. In that country accounts are kept in pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings, between which there is no common ratio, and which differ from the circulating medium. By the introduction of the decimal principle, the American Congress avoided the confusion and perplexity which characterize the English currency, and invented a system, in which the coins increase in value by a regular and the most simple ratio, and where the several denominations used in keeping accounts correspond with the circulating medium. This happy invention has superseded the necessity of compound arithmetic so far as it relates to money, and the merest child can reckon and keep accounts with ease and accuracy. As American money increases in a tenfold proportion, which forms the basis of our system of numbers, it requires nothing more than the application of the simple rules of arithmetic to render a person an accountant.

It is easy to see that the decimal principle may be applied in the same manner, and to a much greater extent in regulating weights and measures. The first object would be to obtain a correct standard, which should be kept at the capital of the United States, so that Maryland should borrow of Washington, instead of Washington of Maryland. The method of obtaining an accurate standard would be to divide a pendulum, which vibrates seconds into decimal parts which might be carried to any given extent. For instance, to construct a table of long measure, let the length of the pendulum or any part of it constitute the basis of it, and the subdivisions and multiplications of it decrease and increase in a tenfold proportion. Thus, ten barley corns should make an inch; ten inches, a foot; ten feet, a rod; ten rods, a furlong, &c. A new nomenclature of denominations would be necessary, which might be formed without difficulty on philosophical principles. Tables of square and cubic measure would be still more convenient and easy to be retained in the memory, since the several denominations would always be of ten; as 100, 1000, 10,000, &c.

From the standard of measures a decimal series of weights might readily be formed. A cubic inch, or a cubic foot of distilled water, or pure gold, should constitute the basis of the weights, and decimal parts and multiples of this taken for the several denominations, as in the tables of measure. Thus 10 drachms should make an ounce; 10 ounces a pound, &c. It is well known that the French have adopted a system somewhat similar to the one now proposed, which has greatly simplified the complex process of calculation. As the decimal

principle was extended to the admeasurement of time, and an alteration of the sabbath, a strong prejudice was excited against the whole system, which is probably the reason why it has received so little attention. In other respects the improvement is worthy of imitation.

Among the advantages of such a system may be reckoned the following:

1. It would save much time, perplexity and labour in the education of youth, and in the acquisition of knowledge with persons of maturer years. Compound arithmetic, as it now stands, may justly be considered in a common education what the 5th proposition is in geometry, "*the ass's bridge*" to the student; and more time is commonly spent on this part of the arithmetic, and the perplexities growing out of it, than on all the rest of the system. Few memories can long retain the several denominations of weights and measures; and at the age a boy commonly begins with arithmetic, he is incapable of applying the tables, even if he recollects them. As the denominations are regulated by no common principle or ratio, a distinct exercise of the memory is required on each, whereas in decimal arithmetic, the name only is required, since the number affixed to it is always the same. What boy comprehends the rationale of carrying by $5\frac{1}{2}$, $16\frac{1}{2}$, or $272\frac{1}{4}$? And yet these complex exercises meet him at the threshold of arithmetic. This may seem a trifling object to some, but improvements in modes of education, and the facilities of acquiring knowledge, ought never to be beneath the attention of a legislator. If one or two years, or even one or two months be saved from the ordinary time allotted to one branch of education, and devoted to another, it is an item in economy which ought not to be disregarded.

2. The system proposed would introduce great facility, expedition, and accuracy in mercantile transactions and book keeping. No person, however prompt he may be in the use of figures, can reckon up a column of pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings, or of ounces, pounds, quarters, &c. with as much ease and correctness as he could decimal numbers. Of the truth of this, no other proof is needed than the convenience, which has been realized from a change of our currency.

3. The importance of a uniform and correct standard of weights and measures throughout the United States. At present in case of a variation, as that at Washington, there is no settled standard by which the inaccuracy is to be rectified. If a ton at New Orleans shall weigh but 19 cwt. at New York, who shall decide at which place the scales are wrong? Cases may readily be imagined in which a difference of this kind might be of great importance, and lead to serious consequences. In such a vast commercial country as the United States, where articles to the value of millions are daily bought and sold, the minutest inaccuracy in detail, would amount to an immense sum in the aggregate. It becomes those who legislate for such a nation to remove every obstruction, and to afford every convenience, to the most equitable and expeditious interchange of commodities.

There are some objections, it is true, to this proposed regulation, such as the difficulty of a transition from one mode of reckoning to another, the expense of new weights and measures, the alterations which would be required in books, maps, &c. But all these inconveniences were encountered in the change of our currency, and the benefit has already far outweighed the expense and trouble. When we consider what we may be permitted to hope—that the United States will for centuries to come be one of the first commercial nations on the globe, how trifling will the expense and temporary inconvenience of such a change appear, when compared with the numerous and important advantages with which it will be attended.

To many persons this scheme may appear visionary—by others, I hope it will be deemed rational, practicable, and useful. At any rate Congress may devote a day to the subject with as much profit to the nation, as they wasted a month at the last session in debates on the slave question.

From the Georgia Gazette.

NATURAL CURIOSITY.

On the Creek Indian lands, a couple of miles from the line that separates that nation from Gwinnett county, in Georgia, is a natural curiosity, as well as a convincing proof that ere an European foot pressed on American soil, the aborigines of this country were not unacquainted with the art of warfare. The (so called) Stone Mountain, is a rock much in the shape of a sugar loaf—it is upwards of two thousand feet in height, and about four miles in circumference at the bottom. One side of the rock projects forward seventy or eighty feet; the height from below is awful—almost terrific! On the other sides, you have a

gradual ascent to about three-fourths of the way up; when you come to a level space fifty feet wide, that extends entirely around the rock.

On the outward side of this level are fortifications, except on that side that projects forward: where indeed none are necessary. The fortifications are six feet wide; and in places where the rocks have not been made use of as sources of amusement to visiters in rolling them down the sides of this rugged rock, they are twelve feet high—and a mile and an half long. The native Indians can in no way account why and when these fortifications were made. It certainly is a stupendous memorial of Indian valour and industry. After passing this fortified place and gaining the summit of this rock, you then are indeed well paid for the fatigue and danger of ascending so high. It is impossible to convey an idea of the grandeur of the sight you behold! Wrapt in wonder, and in meditation, it is some time ere your confused and hurried ideas can well comprehend the sublimity of the scene. I will only remark, that the Allegheny and Cumberland, or Great Laurel Ridge Mountains, the latter two hundred and twenty miles distant, are distinctly seen from this "mother of rocks."

MOULD.

Nothing can be more curious than the appearance exhibited by *mouldiness*, when viewed through a microscope. If looked at by the naked eye, it seems nothing but an irregular tissue of filaments; but the magnifying glass shows it to be a forest of small plants, which derive their nourishment from the moist substance which serves them as a base. The stems of these plants may be plainly distinguished; and sometimes their buds, some shut and some open. They have much similarity to mushrooms, the tops of which, when they come to maturity, emit an exceeding fine dust, which is their seed. Mushrooms, it is well known, are the growth of a single night, but those in miniature, of which we are speaking, seem to come to perfection in a much less space of time than that; hence we account for the extraordinary progress which mouldiness makes in a few hours. Another curious observation of the same kind is, that M. Ashfield, seeing some stones covered with a sort of dust, had the curiosity to examine it with a microscope, and he found that it consisted of small microscopic mushrooms, raised on pedicles, the heads of which, round the middle, were turned up at the edges. They were striated also from the centre to the circumference, as certain kinds of mushrooms are. He further remarked, that they contained, above their upper covering, a multitude of small grains shaped like cherries flattened, which he suspected were the seed; and finally he observed, among the forest of mushrooms, several small red insects, which probably fed upon them.

The *lycoperdon*, or puff-ball, is a plant of the fungus kind, which grows in the form of a tubercle, covered with small grains, very like shagreen. If pressed, it bursts, and emits an exceedingly fine kind of dust, which flies off under the appearance of smoke. If some of the dust be examined with the microscope, it appears to consist of perfectly round globules, of an orange colour, the diameter of which is only about the 1-50th part of the thickness of a hair, so that each grain of this dust is but the 1-125000th part of a globule, equal in diameter to the breadth of a hair.

PERSIAN OPIUM.

An article, sold under the name of Persian opium, having been introduced into this city from New York, and sold for opium, which was generally considered as spurious, a number of druggists of this city met at Yohe's hotel, to take the subject into consideration. A committee was appointed to examine the article, and report to a subsequent meeting. The report having been read, it was ordered that the same should be printed.

The committee appointed to examine the article introduced into some of the drug stores of this city, called Persian opium, reported as follows:—

Of all the articles of the materia medica, opium is the most important, and the most essential to the successful practice of a physician. It is prescribed in a greater range of diseases than any other medicine, and is an indispensable remedy in many of the most fatal and terrible disorders that afflict the human system. It is not alone to the distressing effects of nervous and constitutional irritation, and to alleviate the anguish and torture of pain, that opium is administered; in the crisis of acute disease, life and death are in question, and the result is impending on a judicious administration of a grain of pure opium. It is not necessary here to enlarge on the high obligation imposed on all dealers in drugs to abstain from tampering with the articles they sell, to vend none of whose

purity they have a doubt; or to dwell on the guilt and criminality of those, who will deliberately adulterate their medicine, or delude the unwary practitioner, by imposing on him a deleterious or inert remedy, to the destruction of his patient.

In the commerce of this country and of Europe, two species of opium only are known, the Turkey and the East Indian—Persian opium has not before been heard of. The Turkey opium is much more pure than the East Indian, and is that which is solely used in the practice of medicine in Europe and America. It is by the strength and qualities of Turkey opium, that practitioners regulate their prescriptions, and consequently, it is that only which should be sold when opium is to be employed as medicine.

The committee in order to perform the duty entrusted to them, proceed to a comparative examination of Turkey opium, and the article called Persian opium, in their sensible, chemical and medical properties, of which they present the ensuing statement:

1st. *Sensible Properties*—Persian opium. Its colour is deep black; soft in consistency, as though lately made up; oily, greasing the paper in which it is enveloped; of a nauseous, not well defined smell; of a mawkish taste, with a feeble impression of sweetness. Turkey opium—colour of a reddish brown; when fresh imported soft, but most generally hard; never oily; of a peculiar virose, well defined smell, which cannot be mistaken; of a bitter, strong taste, leaving a sense of pungency and heat on the tongue and fauces.

The sensible properties of these two articles are so entirely distinct, that the most inexperienced person could not hesitate in distinguishing between them. It is the sensible qualities of the medicines, that the dealers in them generally consult, to ascertain their goodness, and any one with the slightest knowledge of opium, must have suspected the sophistication, or the inertness of Persian opium, at the first glance.

2d. *Chemical Properties.*—Half an ounce of Persian opium (so called) was infused in four ounces of water. The whole of it was dissolved, or diffused through the water, leaving no residual matter. When filtered, the infusion was *black*, and there was collected on the filter 37 grains of a black matter having a faint smell of tobacco.

The same quantity of Turkey opium was infused in the same quantity of water. The soluble parts were soon dissolved, leaving behind an elastic, plastic mass, having a strong resemblance to gluten, and which, when dried, weighed 71 grains. The solution was of a *light wine colour.*

To a portion of the watery solution of Persian opium, was added a small quantity of alcohol. A precipitation of a dirty white colour, diffused through the solution, immediately took place. The same quantity of the watery solution of Turkey opium and the same quantity of alcohol, as in the preceding experiment, were mixed together. The solution remained perfectly transparent.

To ascertain the effects of different tests, the watery solution of the spurious and Turkey opiums was used, the result of which is contained in the following experiment:

Infusion of galls, Persian opium—A slight yellowish white coloured precipitate, that did not subside. Turkey opium—a copious white precipitation, that immediately subsided, with an appearance of being curdled.

Acetate of lead, Persian opium—A slight precipitation of a brown colour, diffused through the solution. Turkey opium—white precipitate soon subsiding.

Sulphate of copper, Persian opium—No immediate change, dark coloured precipitate on standing. Turkey opium, instant precipitate of a white colour.

Sulphate of zinc, Persian opium—No precipitate. Turkey opium—a copious white precipitate.

Subcarbonate of potash, Persian opium—No precipitate—the solution becoming slightly turbid, of a dark colour. Turkey opium—a copious curdled precipitate, of a white colour.

Sulphate of iron—No precipitate—the solution became of a deeper colour. Turkey opium—a reddish brown precipitate, which did not subside.

Half an ounce of Persian opium was infused in four ounces of alcohol. There remained 67 grains insoluble residue. A portion was evaporated to dryness, and a soft sweetish extract was obtained, without any resin. To the alcoholic solution, water was added, a diffused precipitation ensued, which subsided on standing some hours. The addition of water to the alcoholic solution of Turkey opium, occasioned an immediate copious precipitate subsiding at once.

Having made the above general examination of the chemical qualities of the article submitted to our consideration, it was

thought proper to ascertain what were the effects produced by it on the system.

3d. *Medical Properties.*—A grain was taken by one of the committee. The pulse beat 85 strokes in a minute. No perceptible alteration in it took place. About an hour afterwards, a slight nausea was felt. Another of the committee, took 50 drops of the tincture without perceiving any effect. Mr. Brit, a student of medicine, took 2 grains at a dose, in the morning, two hours after breakfast; his pulse beating 80 strokes. In 5 minutes, 78; 10 minutes, 76; 15 minutes, 76; 25 minutes, 75; 30 minutes, 76; 40 minutes, 74. Two grains more were taken—5 minutes, pulse 72; 15 minutes, 72; 25 minutes, 72; 35 minutes, 72. The skin remained perfectly cool; there was no sensation of heat, flushing of the face, or other effects produced by a large dose of opium. An hour and a half after taking the dose, a slight nausea was felt, and about half a gill of fluid thrown from the stomach. One of the students at the hospital, took half an ounce of the tincture in one dose, without experiencing any stimulant or soporific effect from it.

From the examination to which the committee have submitted the article called Persian opium, they feel a perfect confidence in pronouncing it to be devoid of the properties of opium; but, that its administration for that purpose, in critical cases, must be attended with the greatest danger to the life of the patient.

SAMUEL JACKSON,
EDWARD LOWBER,
THOMAS WILTBERGER.

Philadelphia, July, 1820. [*Am. D. Adv.*

FROM AN OLD LONDON PAPER.

An unparalleled instance of the power of a horse when assisted by art, was shown near Croydon. The Surrey iron railway being completed, and opened for the carriage of goods all the way from Wandsworth to Merstham, a bet was made between two gentlemen, that a common horse could draw *thirty-six tons* for six miles along the road, and that he should draw this weight from a dead pull, as well as turn it around the occasional windings of the road. The above day was fixed on for the trial; and a number of gentlemen assembled near Merstham to see this extraordinary triumph of art. Twelve wagons loaded with stones, each wagon weighing above three tons, were chained together, and a horse taken promiscuously from the timber cart of Mr. Harwood was yoked into the team. He started from near the Fox public house, and drew the immense chain of wagons with apparent ease to near the turnpike at Croydon, a distance of six miles, in one hour and forty-one minutes, which is nearly at the rate of four miles an hour. In the course of this time he stopped four times, to show that it was not by the impetus of the descent that the power was acquired—and after each stoppage he drew off the chain of wagons from a dead rest. Having gained his wager, Mr. Bankes, the gentleman who laid the bet, directed four more loaded wagons to be added to the cavalcade, with which the same horse again set off with undiminished power; and still further to show the effect of the railway in facilitating motion, he directed the attending workmen, to the number of about fifty, to mount the wagons, and the horse proceeded without the least distress, and in truth, there appeared to be scarcely any limitation to the power of his draught. After the trial the wagons were taken to the weighing machine, and it appeared that the whole weight was as follows—

	ton.	*cwt.*	*qr.*
12 Wagons, first linked together, weighed	38	4	2
4 Ditto, afterwards attached	13	2	0
Supposed weight of 50 labourers	4	0	0
Tons	55	2	6

The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, has now existed upwards of half a century, and has expended in premiums, to promote the public interest, more than 50,000*l.* raised by the voluntary subscriptions of its members, of whom there are about 1500.

The essential oil of hops, obtained by distillation, and afterwards mixed with a small quantity of sugar, is found to be the best way of using that plant in brewing, and the most effectual method of preserving it for years.

GEORGE III.

From Silliman's Travels (*3d edition*).

The following anecdotes concerning the king will illustrate his firmness, his magnanimity, and his discernment.

When the king was shot at, a few years ago, in the theatre, instead of manifesting any weakness or fear, he merely turned to a lord in waiting, and said, "Sir, please to go back and tell the ladies* not to come in

* The queen and princesses who, according

yet, *for there may be another*," and then quietly took his seat.

Towards the latter part of the American war, colonel Trumbull, who had borne arms, in a distinguished station, against the king, and whose father, the first governor Trumbull of Connecticut, was well known in England, for his very active and efficient support of the American revolution, came to London, to devote himself to painting. Through the indiscretion of a companion, he fell under suspicion of being a spy, and was thrown into the Tower, where he underwent a confinement of eight months, and much anxiety was felt for his life. Under these painful circumstances, Mr. West generously interceded with the king in person, for his young friend.

But the anecdote is so interesting, that I will give it to you in colonel Trumbull's own words, he having obligingly furnished me at my request with the following statement:

"I was arrested at 12 o'clock at night of the 19th November, 1780, in London, on *suspicion of treason*—I was then principally occupied in studying the art of painting under Mr. West.

"He (Mr. West) well knew that his attachment to his native country gave offence to some individuals who were about the king's person.

"He therefore went the next morning early, to Buckingham house, and requested an audience of the king; it was granted, and he proceeded to state the origin and nature of his acquaintance with me, concluding, that whatever might have been my conduct in America, he could conscientiously state to his majesty, that since my arrival in London, the principal part of almost every day had been passed under his roof, and indeed under his eye, in the assiduous study of his profession, leaving little or no time for any pursuit, hostile to the interests of Great Britain.

"The king, after a moment's hesitation, made this answer:

"'Mr. West—I have known you long; I have confided in you; I have never known you to mislead me; I therefore repose implicit confidence in this representation.

"'This young gentleman must in the mean time suffer great anxiety: he is in the power of the law, and I cannot at present interfere. But go to him, and assure him from me, that in the worst possible legal result, *he has my royal word, that his life is safe.*'"

"Mr. West came to me with this message immediately, and you may well believe that it softened essentially the rigours of an imprisonment of eight months."

If you consider who was the king's prisoner, that he was, in his view, a rebel, and had just come from fighting in an elevated station against him; that his father was a most active and efficient head of one of the most actively and inveterately rebellious states, I think you will allow that the king's answer, which amounted to this—"should the courts of law condemn him to death, I will save his life by a pardon," constitutes one of the finest passages of kingly history, and could never have proceeded from a little mind.

Another anecdote which I have from a source equally entitled to confidence, illustrates the king's sagacity and presence of mind. Whatever may be the merits of the Irish question of Catholic emancipation, it is well known, that the king has always stated conscientious scruples as the ground of refusing his countenance to the various projects which have been started for effecting this object.

After he had in a great measure lost his eyesight, but before his mental powers were at all impaired, a new project was submitted to him, regarding Irish emancipation. A paper was read to him professedly containing this statement, and his royal signature was requested and expected, but the document really contained very different things. The king immediately suspected that it was an attempt to impose upon him in consequence of his blindness; but, without discovering any suspicion, requested the person who had read the paper, to go to a certain office, and obtain another paper which was wanted. In the mean time, having got rid of this man, he requested a third person, who had accidentally come in, to be so good as to read to him again the paper which the first person had professed to read, stating that he did not quite understand it. He did so, and it was found to be a very different thing from what it was stated to be, and directly contrary to the king's views.

He immediately declared, that as he found he could not trust his servants, he would no longer employ them, and without delay turned out the whole ministry and ordered a new one to be organized.

The king is said, when getting into his carriage at Kew, to have been overheard

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to custom, were waiting in an adjoining room, and would, as a matter of course, have come in within a few minutes.

by two Americans, while he expressed himself thus, to one of his ministers: "We must persevere—we must persevere—*it was by perseverance that Washington and Franklin carried their points.*"

Professor Silliman saw in the British Museum "an Egyptian pebble, which, being accidentally broken, discovered, on both faces of the fracture, a striking likeness of the poet Chaucer. It is a most singular lusus naturæ.

"Mr. Stoughton, Spanish consul at Boston, has been so obliging as to show me a similar lusus naturæ. It is a flint pebble, obtained amongst ballast stone thrown from a vessel at an eastern port. When broken, it presented two complete half heads in profile; all the outlines of the features, and hair, were perfectly distinct, and the heads were of a darker colour than the rest of the stone. What is most surprising is, that one face was male and the other female; and even the putting up of the hair was appropriate to the sexes: they were situated in the stone, *face to face.*"

From the New York Daily Advertiser.

DOUGH FACES.

We are much gratified to learn, that public opinion is so uniformly against the re-election of the members of the present Congress, who sacrificed the interests, and acted diametrically opposite to the feelings and principles of their constituents, by voting for the extension of slavery over the new regions beyond the Mississippi, that some of them have found it expedient to decline the chance of a re-election, others have been formally notified that their future services will be dispensed with, and one at least is struggling in the deepest political agony to hold on to an office which he has disgraced. In Massachusetts, the Hon. Mr. Shaw has published his intention not to run for the ensuing heat. We hope that gentleman did not endure much heart-burning in the exercise of this act of self denial; for we believe he would have made but a sorry figure had he entered the lists. In Connecticut, the Hon. Mr. Foot, who wandered from his duty from the beginning, and the Hon. Mr. Stevens, who began right but ended wrong, have been informed from the best authority, that is the *fiat* of those who first made them members, that their race as representatives will be finished on the 3d of March, 1821. In Rhode Island, Mr. Eddy, who was also one of the deserters from the cause of freedom just as the final question was about to be taken, is called to encounter strong opposition on the ground of his conduct on that occasion. It is true, the majority of a caucus have nominated him, and as the world goes, that fact furnishes a strong presumption in favour of his success. But we hope better things of the people of that state; and shall lament very much to see them disgraced by the election of a man whose vote was given on the wrong side of that odious question.

In this state the trial has not commenced; but we have little expectation of finding a single individual re-elected who voted for slavery. The sentiment is so general, so uniform, and so strong in opposition to its extension, that it will be matter of surprise if any *slave voter* is returned to the next Congress.

Nor do we see any indications of a relaxation of feeling on this subject in the other free states. In the three northwestern ones, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, as far as we can learn from their papers and other sources, the opposition to the extension of this national mischief gains rather than loses ground.

Poetry.

From "Poems, by Bernard Barton (a Quaker)." Published in London.

STANZAS.

We knew that the moment was drawing nigh,
To fulfil every fearful token;
When the silver chord must loosen its tie,
And the golden bowl be broken;
When the fountain's vase, and the cistern's wheel,
Should alike to our trembling hearts appeal.

And now shall thy dust return to the earth,
Thy spirit to God who gave it;
Yet affection shall tenderly cherish thy worth,
And memory deeply engrave it,
Not upon tables of brass or stone,
But in those fond bosoms where best 'twas known.

Thou shalt live in mine, though thy life be fled,
For friendship thy name shall cherish;
And be one of the few, and the dearly lov'd dead,
Whom my heart will not suffer to perish;
Who in loveliest dreams are before me brought,
And in sweetest hours of waking thought.

But oh! there is one, with tearful eye,
Whose fondest desires fail her;
Who indeed is afraid of that which is high,
And fears by the way assail her;
Whose anguish confesses that tears are vain,
Since dark are the clouds that return after rain!

May He, who alone can scatter those clouds,
Whose love all fear dispelleth;
Who, though for a season his face he shrouds,
In light and in glory dwelleth,
Break in on that mourner's soul, from above,
And bid her look upwards with holy love.

THE IVY.

Dost thou not love in the season of spring,
To twine thee a flowery wreath,
And to see the beautiful birch-tree fling
Its shade on the grass beneath?
Its glossy leaf and its silvery stem;
Oh! dost thou not love to look on them?

And dost thou not love, when leaves are greenest,
And summer has just begun,
When in the silence of moonlight thou leanest,
Where glist'ning waters run,
To see, by that gentle and peaceful beam,
The willow bend down to the sparkling stream?

And oh! in a lovely autumnal day,
When leaves are changing before thee,
Do not nature's charms, as they slowly decay,
Shed their own mild influence o'er thee?
And hast thou not felt, as thou stoods't to gaze,
The touching lesson such scene displays?

It should be thus at an age like thine:
And it has been thus with me;
When the freshness of feeling and heart were mine,
As they never more can be:
Yet think not I ask thee to pity my lot,
Perhaps I see beauty where thou dost not.

Hast thou seen, in winter's stormiest day,
The trunk of a blighted oak,
Not dead, but sinking in slow decay,
Beneath time's resistless stroke,
Round which a luxuriant ivy had grown,
And wreath'd it with verdure no longer its own?

Perchance thou hast seen this sight, and then,
As I, at thy years might do,
Pass'd carelessly by, nor turned again
That scathed wreck to view:
But now I can draw, from that mould'ring tree,
Thoughts which are soothing and dear to me.

O smile not! nor think it a worthless thing,
If it be with instruction fraught;
That which will closest and longest cling,
Is alone worth a serious thought!
Should aught be unlovely which thus can shed
Grace on the dying, and leaves not the dead?

Now, in thy youth, beseech of HIM
Who giveth, upbraiding not,
That his light in thy heart become not dim,
And his love be unforgot;
And thy God, in the darkest of days, will be,
Greenness, and beauty, and strength to thee?

For a copy of the following pathetic and exquisite effusion, breathing all the inspiration of poetry, and all the eloquence, with perhaps a little of the extravagance of love, we are indebted to the politeness of a respected friend. We do not ever recollect to have seen these lines before, and know not whether they had their origin on this, or the other side of the Atlantic. Perhaps some of our readers have perused them before, and may recognise the author.

[*N. Y. Statesman.*

With what a fev'rish mind do I behold
These scenes, that witness'd oft as pure a love,
As ever dwelt within a mortal breast:
When she, the dear companion of my walks,
At whose appearance nature seem'd to breathe
New fragrance round, and wear her sweetest smiles,
Would point each beauty to my raptur'd view!
Would bid me mark, how white the hawthorn's flower—
What verdure deck'd the lawn beneath our feet—
How gay the poplars, and amidst their green
How pensive did the cedar's hues appear—
With what a majesty the setting sun
Cast his mild radiance on the winding stream,
Whose scarcely ruffled breast, inverted, shew'd
The various trees, that on its borders grew—
And each light cloud, that high in ether sail'd.
How sweet the robin trill'd his am'rous lay,
How sweet the wood-dove coo'd unto her mate.
And then when she had caught my wand'ring eyes,
Turn'd from the charms, which nature spread around,
To gaze on those a thousand times more dear,
How has she hid her face upon my breast,
And said, she ne'er should make me nature's lover!
Ah! who could see her, and not nature love?
Oh! she could bend me to her every will—
My soul's emotions all were in her power;
And yet so gently did she bear her sway,
She never form'd a wish that was not mine.

I had known many, whom the thoughtless world
Would call more fair, more beautiful than she;
But never had my eyes beheld the face,
Which more express'd that evenness of soul,
That meek, sweet temper, which is ever pleas'd,
When it can give delight; that mind inform'd
By reason's precepts, candid, and sincere;
That breast, by every gentle passion sway'd,
The throne, of virtue, innocence, and truth,
And all the mental charms by which the sex
Can make this world a paradise to man.
I oft have looked upon her angel eyes,
To see sweet fancy sporting in their beams!
Have look'd until unutterable love
Has swell'd the tear of transport in my own.
I could not help it—I ne'er think on her,
But what my eyes are tenants to my will,
And play the infant——

Here we stray'd:
How strongly mem'ry paints upon my heart
That dear, dear glance, which first betray'd her love!
How widely different was her love from mine!
For though with such a warmth her bosom glow'd,
That she has often told me, she would die,
If that would but insure my happiness;
Yet was it mild as is the solar ray,
In that soft season when the plastic hand
Of nature moulds for Amalthea's horn
Her embryo fruits, and scatters wild her flowers.
Mine was the ardour of the mid-day blaze,
When on the torrid regions Phœbus pours
His fervid beams, and nature burns around.

Here I have plucked the wild flower for her breast,
And thought the simple blossom of the thorn,
Plac'd there, more lovely than the garden rose,
And sweeter than the violet of the vale.
Yet—why I know not—I would sometimes feel,
As if these flowers should not be suffered there;
They might from her lov'd bosom steal its snows,
Or rob her balmy breath of half its sweets;
And I have taken them unknown to her,
And torn their leaves, and strewed them in her walks:
And once—such fancies fill a lover's brain—
Alas! that e'er their warning should be true!
I thought I heard a dying flowret say—
"Beware rash youth! these gusts of passion rule:
"Torn from her breast my fate may yet be thine."

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

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FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

ON WATER-PROOF LIME.

Germantown, August 15, 1820.

Dear Sir—On my return from the Falls of Niagara, I descended the Great Canal, from Auburn to Utica, and had frequent opportunities of examining the aqueducts and locks, in the construction of which the "*water-proof lime*" is found to subserve so valuable a purpose. Several gentlemen of intelligence, employed in superintending those works, assured me, that masonry, where this lime was used, could not be taken down without blasting, and the singular hardness of those portions of the mortar which I examined, under water, induced me to credit what I heard with regard to its importance in hydraulic architecture. The property of hardening under water is that which constitutes the great value of this species of lime; but Judge Wright and Dr. Barton (to whom we are indebted for the application of it to the construction of locks and aqueducts) think that as it will adhere to shingles and boards as firmly as to stone, it may constitute a covering for houses, which will be impermeable to rain, and will diminish the risk of fire. The intelligent members of the Agricultural Society will readily perceive how useful it will prove in forming floors for dairies, cellars, kitchens, &c. and in the construction of cisterns for holding water. It is probable too that granaries might be made with it, which would secure grain from weavel and from rats; for, if I am not mistaken, the plaister formed by it would prove too hard for rats to penetrate.

The stone from which this lime is made will probably be found in many parts of the United States. It abounds in the country adjacent to the route of the Great Canal. I saw great quantities of it at Vienna in Ontario county, lying between strata of blue limestone, where it constituted a stratum of about two feet in thickness. The specimen I gave you,* was obtained at Syracuse, near Salina. It is burnt in the ordinary way, until a mass taken from the fire and broken exhibits an uniform whitish buff coloured appearance throughout. It cannot be made to slack without great difficulty. It is therefore prepared for use by grinding it like plaister of Paris. To two parts of lime one of clean coarse sand is added, with as much water as will give it the consistence of mortar. It is then used either in building or in plaistering the inside of cisterns, and hardens both in the air and under water in a very short time. The following analysis was handed to me by Mr. Hudson of Geneva, but I know not by whom it was made, nor can I vouch for its accuracy.

Of carbonic acid . .	35 parts
Lime	25
Silex	15
Alumine	16
Water	2
Oxyde of iron . .	1

With sentiments of great regard,
Your most obedient,
SAMUEL BROWN.

Mr. Reuben Haines.

* Deposited in the collection of the Agricultural Society.

Political Economy.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

OF SALES.

From Say's Traité d'Economie Politique.

The first consequence that may be deduced from this important truth,* is that in every situation, the more numerous the producers and more multiplied the products are, so much more easy and various and vast are the sales; and by a natural consequence, they are the more lucrative, for the demand raises the price.

But this advantage is the fruit of nothing but a real production, and not of a forced

* That products are bought with products only, and that every new production opens a sale for other productions to the amount of its value. See page 118.

circulation; for a value does not double in passing from one hand to another, nor when it is raised and expended by government, instead of being at the disposal of individuals; the man who lives upon the productions of others does not increase sales: he substitutes himself for the producer, and that is, as we shall see elsewhere, to the great hindrance of production.*

A second consequence of the same principle is, that every one is interested in the prosperity of all, and that the prosperity of one kind of industry is favourable to the prosperity of all others. In fact, whatever may be the kind of industry that one cultivates, or the talent that one exercises, the employment of it will be so much more easy and so much more profitable, as one is surrounded with more people who gain also. The man of talent whom you see sadly vegetating in a declining country, would find a thousand modes of employing his faculties in a prosperous country, where his capacity would be made use of and well paid. A shopkeeper placed in a rich and industrious town, sells to a much greater amount, than does he who lives in a poor country where carelessness and idleness reign. What could an active manufacturer or an able merchant do in a half peopled and half civilized part of Westphalia or Poland? Though he would meet with no competition he would sell but little, because little is produced there; while at Paris, at Amsterdam, at London, notwithstanding the competition of a hundred people in the same business with himself, he could transact a very extensive business. The reason of this is very simple: he is surrounded by people who produce much, in a great many different kinds, and who make purchases with what they produce—that is to say, with the money arising from the sale of what they have produced.

Such is the source of the profit which the inhabitants of the city make of those in the country, and that the latter make of the former; both classes have more to buy with when they produce more. A city surrounded by a rich country finds numerous and rich purchasers, and in the neighbourhood of an opulent city, the products of the country have a greater value. It is by a futile distinction that nations are classed as agricultural, manufacturing and commercial. If a nation succeed in agriculture, it is a reason why her manufactures and her commerce should prosper; if her manufactures and her commerce are flourishing, her agriculture will improve.†

A nation stands in the same relation to a neighbouring nation as one province to another, or as a city to the country; it is interested in their prosperity, and certain of profiting by their opulence. It was therefore with great reason that the government of the United States undertook in 1802 to civilize the Creeks, their savage neighbours. It was desirable to give them industry and to make them producers, that they might give something in exchange to the nation; for nothing can be gained from those who have nothing wherewith to pay. It is delightful to humanity to perceive one nation among so many, regulate its conduct in every point upon liberal principles. It will be proved by the brilliant results, that the exclusive and jealous maxims of the old European states, which they with great effrontery call *practical truths*, because they unhappily put them in practice, are deserving of the appellations of *vain systems* and *fatal theories*, so often and so ignorantly applied to the great truths of political economy. The American confederation will have the glory of proving by experience, that the most profound policy is in accordance with moderation and humanity.‡

* It is the most foolish distinction in the world, to divide a nation into consumers and producers. Every body without exception consumes, and with very few exceptions every body produces more or less, some by their personal labours, others by the labour of their capital or land. It is to be wished that production was still more general and more active. There would less frequently be spent the fruits of the labours of others, who would themselves have more to consume.

† Every great productive establishment vivifies its whole neighbourhood. "In Mexico, the best cultivated fields, those which remind the traveller of the fairest parts of France, are the plains which extend from Salamanca towards Siloa, Guanaxuato and Villa de Leon, and which surround the richest mines of the known world. Wherever metallic veins have been discovered in the most uncultivated parts of the Cordilleras, in the most desert places, the opening of mines, far from discouraging the cultivation of the soil, has singularly favoured it. The foundation of a town immediately follows the discovery of a considerable mine. Farms are established around, and a mine which at first appeared isolated in the midst of wild and desert mountains, is soon united to lands formerly cultivated."—*Humboldt's New Spain.*

‡ Before the late progress of political economy, these important truths were unknown, not merely to the vulgar, but to the most enlight-

A third consequence from this fruitful principle is, that no injury is done to the industry of a nation, by importing merchandise from abroad; for we can only buy from foreign nations with our own productions, to which this commerce consequently opens a sale. But it is in silver, it will be said, that foreign merchandise is paid for. If that be true, our soil produces no silver, and this must have been bought with the proceeds of our industry; therefore, whether our foreign purchases are made with silver or other merchandise, the proceeds of the national industry have the same vents.*

By a fourth consequence of the same principle we may perceive, that to encourage consumption is not to favour commerce; for the question is not to give a desire for consuming, but to afford the means: and we have seen that production which gives the means of consumption, is sufficient to cause it to take place, reproductively or unproductively, because the fruits of production will be lost if they are not employed, and delay in its employment is itself a loss. Thus, those administrations which excite consumption are bad—those which are good stimulate production.

From the same reason that a new product created opens a sale, a product consumed or destroyed cuts off a means of sale. This is not an evil where the destruction of a product has served its purpose, which is to procure the satisfaction of our wants, or new products which tend to this end. The products continually created, if the situation is prosperous, surpass in value the products continually destroyed. These have fulfilled their office: nothing is more true; but their consumption has not opened new sales, but the contrary.†

After having comprehended that the demand for products in general is more lively in proportion as production is more active, (an invariable truth, notwithstanding its paradoxical turn,) there will be little difficulty in knowing towards what branch of industry it is desirable that industry should turn itself. The products created give rise to various demands, determined by the manners, necessities, state of capital, of industry, and the natural agents of a country; the goods in demand, in consequence of the competition of those who wish to buy, afford a greater revenue to the capitals which are consecrated to them, greater profits for the undertakers, and greater wages for labourers; and the means of production, attracted by these advantages, flow naturally towards this kind of industry.

In a society, city, province or nation, which produces much, and where the mass of products augments every moment, all kinds of commerce, of fabrication and of industry, receive a good recompense; because the demand is considerable, and there are always many products ready to pay new productive services. By a contrary reason, in every state where production advances slowly, and never replaces the value of products consumed, the demand declines: there are always more goods offered than are sold; profits and wages diminish; the employment of capital becomes hazardous; opulent families, if they do not join in some depredation, fall into mediocrity; those which enjoyed a comfortable ease feel restraints; the indigent class receives low wages, cannot always find employment, suffers and decays; and if this situation continues, depopulation, want and barbarism, take the place of the abundance and happiness to which every nation may attain if it will.

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ened and judicious. We read the following in Voltaire:—"Such is the condition of man, that to wish for the greatness of one's own country, is to wish evil to neighbouring nations. It is clear that one country can gain only what another loses." (*Dict. Phil.* article *Patrie.*) He adds that to be a citizen of the world, one must not wish his own country greater or less, richer or poorer. This is a consequence of the same error. The true cosmopolite does not desire that his country should extend her dominion, because she will thus endanger her own happiness; but he desires that she should become richer, for the prosperity of his country is favourable to all others.

* This effect has been very sensible at Brazil in the present year (1816). The great quantity of European goods that the liberty of the seas has brought into Brazil, has been so favourable to the products of the soil and the commerce of that country, that Brazilian products were sold to more advantage than at any other period. We see then a great importation producing great benefit in this case. It would perhaps have been better (we may say in passing) had the price of Brazilian goods and the profits of their producers been slower and more moderate; for no durable commerce can be founded upon extravagant prices: it is better to gain by multiplying products, than by exaggerating their price.

† If to consume a product be a disadvantage to production, and lessen the avenues of sale, what name shall we give to that degree of madness (the burning of foreign goods) which deliberately destroys them, and thus takes from unproductive consumption the only consolation it offers—the satisfaction of a want?

Agriculture.

FROM THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

Facts and experiments on the use of Sugar in feeding Cattle: with hints for the cultivation of Waste Lands; and for improving the condition of the lower orders of Peasantry, in Great Britain and Ireland.

It is the object of this work, to recommend the use of sugar to the notice of the public, as a more economical mode of feeding cattle, than any which is at present employed. The patriotic author tells us that heath or lyng, which usually grows in the most barren spots, may, by "the assistance of molasses or sugar," be converted into the most nutritious food. With respect to horses we are informed, that "a certain quantity of sugar makes much less corn answer the purpose."

"It may be given either in their drink in the stable bucket, mixed with water, or properly diluted and sprinkled among their chaff; in which case the quantity of hay may be reduced if you please, until, by degrees, you give none at all; the molasses communicating to cut straw that nourishment which is, at present, derived from the hay, and by that means saves an immense deal of expense: for beyond all doubt, hay is the dearest food that can be given to horses, or indeed, to any other kind of beast; and if it was once properly known that a substitute could be had, better and cheaper, as well as more easily attainable, I believe, in a very short time, we should find a great deal of what is now kept up for meadow land, and carrying a most wretched crop for want of manure, put under tillage, and paying the farmer double or treble what it now does, when he finds that his straw will support, not only his horses, but also his cows, heifers, and calves; and bring them through the winter better and cheaper than he formerly did upon hay. Besides, it frequently happens, that a farmer calculates in such a manner, that the quantity of hay he lays in, is barely sufficient for the winter; and should the spring happen, as is frequently the case, to be cold and backward, and the grass late in coming forward, he is, in that case, reduced to the necessity of buying more hay, when the scarcity makes it, perhaps, nearly at double price; or if he cannot afford that, he is compelled to sell his cattle at a very reduced value, rather than have them starved. That such cases are very common, every man, acquainted with farming concerns, must know; but independent of the cheapness of this mode of feeding, there is another consideration, which is no less worthy of attention, to which every man, interested in the subject, ought to look; and that is, when cattle are brought well through the winter, the superiority of their appearance and condition in spring, either when put to grass or brought to market, is such as to command a price far above cattle of the same description indifferently wintered; and if young cattle, the difference in their growth is particularly remarkable. And I have no hesitation in saying, that molasses will show itself in the condition of an animal, more than any other kind of food we know of. Cattle fed upon it, will come out in the spring, in fine condition; strong, healthy, and full of spirits; and of course, when put to grass, they will begin to fill and thrive forthwith; whilst cattle taken from a straw-yard, where they have been indifferently fed during the winter, must be a considerable time on the grass, before they recover the starvation, and, consequently, take up so much time and food to no other purpose, which a thriving animal will convert to immediate profit. This naturally leads me to remark, that wherever lyng or brackens can be had conveniently, farmers ought by all means to take advantage of them; or even rushes, when to be had, in any quantity; or dried leaves of trees, such as are to be found in autumn in plantations, are also an excellent food for cattle in winter, and I will venture to say, equal to any thing to be had as a substitute for hay; for let it be understood, *the nourishment is in the molasses.* What is hay itself, if you deprive it of its saccharine quality? The coarse food only serves to fill up the stomach, and give it that distension which is absolutely necessary. That this is fact, may be proved by a very simple experiment. Let any man boil his hay for a short time, and after it has drained, give the liquid to one bullock, and the hay, thus boiled, to another, he will soon find, that the virtue has been communicated to the wash; and that the residuum is a matter without any nutritive qualities; and if he will continue to boil the wash before giving it to the animal, until it is reduced to one-fourth or one-eighth the quantity, he will soon find, that the nutritive part of the hay, is actually sugar; then let him see whether the value of such a quantity of hay laid out in West India sugar, would not produce him a much greater quantity of wash than he has been able to obtain from the hay; for as to its value after boiling, it is, as food, literally nothing; why then not use a cheaper substitute?

The author relates the following instance of the wonder-working virtue of molasses on a horse, of seventeen or eighteen years of age. He

"had been an old hunter, and consequently exposed to violent and sudden heats and colds, which had at last brought him into such a state of health, that no art or mode of feeding would put flesh on his bones. He became a mere skeleton, was turned out to grass, but all in vain; he was then taken into the stable, and, though most plentifully fed with hay and corn, he seemed to become daily worse; after some time, he was condemned to be shot, as being considered of no use: it was then determined to try what effect sugar would have, as a fitter subject could not, perhaps, be found to prove its wonderful powers. The first week he was fed upon hay and straw chaff, mixed in equal quantities; this was given to him in a box, with about one quarter of a pound of molasses, diluted in water, and sprinkled over it, at six different times in the day, in small quantities; his allowance of oats was diminished to a quart per day. In this way he was kept till the eighth day, when the molasses was increased to half a pound in the day; his allowance of corn the same as the first week.

At the end of a fortnight, there was a visible alteration in the appearance of the horse; though not perceptibly fatter, his coat began to shine, his hair to be smooth, and a great quantity of dust started from his skin in cleaning; he began to lie down more frequently, and the colour of his dung changed from what it was. The third week, the quantity of molasses was increased to three quarters of a pound each day, at the expiration of which he was to all appearance beginning to gather flesh; his corn this week was one quart in the twenty-four hours; his allowance of molasses was now increased to a pound in the day, which was mixed up with chaff made solely from straw; his allowance of corn was increased to two quarts, Winchester measure; at which rate of feeding he was continued, and in six weeks from the commencement of the trial on molasses, he was in as fine condition as any horse could be, to the astonishment of those who were accustomed to see him only a skeleton. The effect of the molasses was truly wonderful, and what was the more remarkable, his condition continued good for a length of time after, at least as long as he remained in that neighbourhood."

The author strongly recommends the practice of this mode of feeding to the cow-keepers of this country, particularly in the vicinity of large towns. These persons are at present in the habit of employing distillers' wash, but the author suggests that they might prepare from molasses a much more wholesome and nutritious wash than they could procure from the distillers. Under this system we are led to believe that the cows will give a richer milk and in greater quantity.

"But when dairy farmers come to ascertain, that by the use of molasses they can save so much expense in the article of hay, and have their butter so much increased, it will be a most powerful recommendation to this practice; and certainly straw is equally good food, where a sufficient quantity of molasses is used. It is also much in favour of this mode of feeding, that cows can be housed in the heat of the day; which should invariably be the case: and I would recommend the same rule to be observed as in fattening beasts, that in feeding they should get a little and often, supplying them with plenty of water, and keeping them well curried and clean.

"Sugar or molasses will never, from its purity, impart any bad taste to the milk; whilst turnips and cabbages, the principal dependance in winter, are both of them apt to give a most rank and disagreeable taste to both butter and milk, a matter deserving particular attention; and as to cheapness, I shall be very much deceived indeed, if by industrious management the farmer may not feed his cows cheaper with this new method, than he ever did before. In using this sort of food, as it is of a very nourishing nature, it would be advisable to milk the cows four times in the day.

"It is a fact well known to those who have attentively studied the subject, that in all great dairy countries, the young stock decreases in number: this is supposed to be owing to the dairy paying so much better than rearing cattle. This is a circumstance much to be regretted, as the diminution of stock is a manifest injury to the country, for reasons which I have already pointed out: therefore, if any mode could be adopted of uniting the business of the dairy with that of rearing stock, without interfering with the present profits of the dairy farmer, I am inclined to think such a practice would be of the greatest benefit to the country at large. This I am pretty confident can be done by the use of molasses or sugar; because the skim-milk, after the cream has been taken off for the churn, can, by the addition of that article, be rendered sufficiently nutritive, not only for the purpose of rearing calves, but also of making them fit for the butcher; this, if ever properly understood, and regularly introduced to general practice, would be found an improvement of vast consequence; the rearing of calves being an object of much profit to all farmers, particularly when it can be accomplished without any defalcation of the regular supply of their milk. And although such a plan may experience the fate of many new inventions, yet when it has had a fair trial, and prejudice becomes once conquered by the power of practice, it will be found, I have no doubt, that a dairy farmer may, if he pleases, rear the entire of his calves without in the least interfering with his usual profits; and not only rearing them, but, I will venture to say, rearing them in a superior manner, as to their growth and general condition. And if we calculate the additional profit a man may derive from a dairy of one hundred cows, where the calves are reared to the same dairy, where he cannot do it the difference will be very great indeed, and operate as a very strong recommendation to give the mode now pointed out a fair and impartial trial. Besides, it would be an additional recommendation, as putting it into the farmer's power to have a much better stock of milk cattle: for certainly the female calves of those cows that are known good milkers, ought at all times to be reared. But as things are now circumstanced, the farmer is in most cases obliged to supply himself at fairs and markets, taking his chance for the quality of the cows he purchases; but should he have at all times the power of rearing his own stock, he could then keep himself constantly supplied with a breed, the excellence of which he had been well acquainted with.

"It is calculated, I believe, that from an acre and a half to two acres is allowed for the support of a dairy cow. Now let us suppose that these two acres are appropriated to tillage instead of grass, and the straw cut into chaff for feeding the cows, mixed with a certain quantity of molasses; is it not reasonable to suppose, that by such management, the supply of butter will be at least as great as at present, and the profit to the farmer much increased by this mode of practice? but, above all, will the increase of our tillage not be a very material point gained on this occasion; not to take into consideration the consumption of the produce of our colonies, so much as our internal advantage? At present the principal use of straw is for making litter

and to be trodden into dung; but will it not be a very great and serious improvement in the management of the farmer, if he can, whilst making his dung, be feeding his cattle and preparing fat beasts for the butcher? Will not his dung be improved by passing through the stomach of a cow or a horse, and his hay saved into the bargain? This theory at all events is well imagined, and I hope the practice is equally simple and easy."

In the appendix we have an account of an experiment which was made of this mode of feeding cattle, by Edmund Thomas Walter, esq. who fed two oxen with a portion of molasses, which were afterwards exhibited at lord Somerville's show in last March, where they were honoured with the prize.

As sugar contains a greater quantity of nourishment than any other known vegetable matter, there can be no doubt at first sight that it might be employed to great advantage in the feeding of cattle, but whether with such extraordinary success, or to such an extent as the author seems to imagine, must be left to more numerous "facts and experiments" to determine. The author, like most men who make new discoveries, or give new life to old, is evidently very sanguine in his expectations; and we hope that time will prove that his hopes have not been more diffusively exuberant than the event will justify. We know the natural temperament of all advocates for novel modes, whether in pharmacy, in agriculture, or in politics, and we know, moreover, that where the delusion is very strong, it is too apt to render the mind inattentive to facts which militate against the favourite theory. As we are not practical agriculturists, we can reason only from general principles; but we think that great praise is due to the philanthropy of the anonymous writer, and that his observations are well worthy the serious attention of the public. Should his remarks be true, and his theory be practicable only to a very limited extent, much benefit must result both to the commercial and to the agricultural interests from its adoption. Nor is it one among the least of its secondary recommendations, that it would apply a certain and efficient relief to the distresses of the West India planters, about which so much has been said, and to remedy which so many expedients have been proposed. One of its primary advantages, would be that it would throw a much greater quantity of land into tillage; and that it would at the same time increase the growth of corn and the supply of meat.

PEACH TREES.

An effectual method of preserving peach trees from decay has been recently discovered in Virginia. It is cheap and simple, and well worth an experiment. It consists in binding a small bundle of tobacco around the body of the tree just above the ground. This must be done usually about the middle of July, but it may be worth the trial during the whole month of August. It has the effect to destroy the eggs that are deposited by an insect at the root of the tree, which produce worms that prey upon its juices, and soon destroy it.

TO THE EDITORS OF THE POST BOY.

Chester, July 23, 1820.

As a knowledge of the origin of the cutworm, so injurious to the young Indian corn plant, may lead to the means of a general destruction of this desolating grub—various opinions also being entertained among farmers, as to its parent state—I beg leave, through your paper, to communicate the result of an experiment made with a view to ascertain the fact. Persuaded from facts already detailed in natural history, that the cutworm or grub was only an intermediate or caterpillar state of some winged insect, I prepared a glass jar with about five inches of common earth, covered by a piece of bladder tied tight round the neck, and perforated with small holes to admit air. In this jar, on six succeeding days, was put a grub or cutworm, taken from the cornfield. They were selected of different sizes, from the largest to the smallest I could obtain, and were fed daily with young cabbage plants, whilst any of them could eat. They were placed in the jar on the three last days of June and beginning of July—on each day. After eating voraciously for three or four days, the first worm, which was the largest, disappeared; the others, in nearly the same proportion of time from their confinement, ceased to eat, and went under ground also, as was expected, to undergo their change into the chrysalis state.

On the night of the 17th July, a winged insect, about an inch in length, of a dark brown colour inclining to black, with bands of dirty white near the extremity of the wings, made its appearance. It is of that description of *moth*, which flies about in the night, and is often seen fluttering round a lighted candle, commonly a fatal attraction to the Moth, or Miller, as it is sometimes called. In three days this insect

died. Last night another Miller of the same kind appeared in the jar, not quite so large as the first, but not otherwise distinguishable: the remaining worms will, no doubt, reappear in due time and form—with the present result, however, I am satisfied; it conforms to the order of nature: every one knows, or may know by inquiry, that the circle of change "perpetually going round" in the insect tribes, is threefold; the worm or caterpillar is hatched from the egg deposited by the female fly, which, after attaining maturity in this state, is transformed into a chrysalis, sometimes naked, sometimes covered with a web, from which, in its appointed time, issues the perfect insect. The silkworm is a familiar instance of these allwise changes—"that seemingly contemptible, that disgusting reptile, in its passage from the caterpillar to the chrysalis state, produces those splendid materials, which adorn the thrones of princes, and add dignity and lustre to female beauty."

July 27.—No other moth appearing, I determined to break up the earth in the jar, and soon discovered the reason—a little colony of small ants had made a lodgment within, and were busily employed on the remaining four worms, which had entered into the chrysalis state, and were enveloped in cells of earth, something like those constructed by the mud wasp. The ants had penetrated these cells, eaten three of the worms, except the skins, and killed the fourth, which had undergone the change into the fly state, though not sufficiently matured to break forth; the shells or skins out of which the two living insects came, were also found in like cells, in perfect preservation.

That this development of facts may produce results beneficial to the farmer, the habits and manners of the Miller should be inquired into, the more readily to effect its ruin. Being a short-lived, night-flying insect, seldom seen abroad in the day time, unless disturbed in its retreat, perhaps fires lighted up at night on different parts of the farm, where the worm has been discovered, shortly after its disappearance to undergo a change, might accomplish its destruction, as all the moths within range of the light, directing their course to the blaze, would perish.

The ants, which are often seen in myriads among the young corn about the time the worm commits its greatest depredations, are possibly aiding instead of injuring the interests of the farmer; they are suspected of eating the young corn, when their object may be to eat the chrysalis of the worm. WM. GRAHAM.

Record.

England.—The investigation into the queen's conduct is about to proceed. Witnesses against her have been brought from Italy, and have received the early civilities of the Dover mob, who beat them and spit upon them. A large number of the most respectable people in Italy are expected over to give testimony in her favour. The king is openly attacked in parliament, on the ground of his vices. Public attention is entirely absorbed by the pending trial. The coronation is indefinitely postponed. Our good neighbours in Canada, who could not foresee this, celebrated the ceremony on the day that had been fixed upon in England.

FROM ENGLISH PAPERS.

At the late sale of Mr. West's pictures, the "Death of Actæon," by Titian, sold for 1700 guineas. It was originally purchased by Mr. West for 30 pounds.

In consequence of the postponement of the coronation, a number of the workmen employed in Westminster Abbey, have been discharged.

An Englishman who was taken up at Nantz, during the riots, told the judge in his defence, that not understanding French, and being accustomed to scenes of far more hostile character in his own country, he remained in the crowd, not thinking that a tumult had commenced.

The Hull Advertiser mentions a patent vessel building at Hull, which has no timbers, but is constructed of five alternate layers or courses of plank, crossing each other at right angles; a mode of building which seems to give great strength, as she has no flooring or futtock feet, so difficult to secure in other vessels.

It is said that the new constitution of the Prussian monarchy will be published on the 3d August, the anniversary of the birth of the sovereign.

The emperor Alexander sets out this month from St. Petersburgh, on an excursion to the frontiers of his vast empire. In the course of this month the king of Sweden is expected to visit Norway.

A letter from Dr. Morrison, dated Canton, Nov. 25th, 1819, says, "By the mercy of God an entire version of the books of the Old and New Testament into the Chinese language, was this day brought to a conclusion."

ECONOMY.

Can frugal ministers forbear
A gracious QUEEN to own,
Who for her suff'ring country's care,
Leaves fifty thousand pounds a year,
And asks but—HALF A CROWN?

France is more quiet than she has lately been, and *Spain* is pursuing the same steady and moderate course that has thus far characterized the revolution in that country.

From the 5th number of "Practical Remarks on the Canal," a series of essays now in the course of publication in the Albany Statesman.

An obliging friend at Montezuma has furnished me with an account of the number of boats, or rather the number of passages, for some of the boats passed several times, through lock No. 8, of the Erie Canal, together with a statement of their cargoes, within 31 days, commencing 30th of 5th mo. and ending 30th of 6th mo.—By which it appears, that

146 passages were made through the lock—
35 by elegant stage boats with passengers,
24 pleasure boats,
13 empty boats,
74 boats with cargoes, consisting of
2438 bushels wheat,
3776 barrels flour,
334 barrels pork,
112 barrels potashes,
776 barrels salt,
49 barrels beer,
2000 stands of arms,
A quantity of butter, lard, oil, lumber, hams, whiskey, and goods.

This will give some idea of the value of the canal to the inhabitants in the vicinity of Cayuga and Seneca lakes. None of the produce of the extensive and fertile country between Montezuma and Utica is included in the above. Boats are constantly loading and unloading at different landings on the canal, within these two points.

MARRIED.

On the 22d instant, by the Right Rev. Wm. White, D. D. Mr. John G. Biddle, to Miss Mary Biddle, daughter of Charles Biddle, esq.

Miscellany.

MADAME DE STAEL.

Particulars of Madame de Stael, drawn from Me. de Saussure's Life of that distinguished woman.

FROM A LATE ENGLISH REVIEW.

When we consider the manner in which Madame de Stael passed the years of infancy, we cannot look without regret to what she was and what she might have been under more judicious management.

She was introduced into society at an age when other girls are qualifying themselves for the duties of life by the study of right dispositions and solid acquirements. At the side of Madame Necker's chair was placed a little wooden stool, on which her daughter sat, obliged to hold herself very upright. Scarcely had she taken her usual place, when three or four grave personages approached, and began to speak to her with an air of the most tender interest. One of these, who wore a little round peruque, took her hands between his, and entered into conversation with her, as if she had been twenty-five years old. This was the abbé Raynal, the others were Thomas, Marmontel, the marquis de Pesay, and the baron de Grimm. At table, politics were the chief topic—*il falloit voir comme elle ecoutoit!*—her eyes followed each speaker as he gave his opinion; but she never mingled in the conversation. After dinner more company arrived. Each as they approached Madame Necker, addressed themselves to her daughter, and either complimented or joked with her. She replied to all with ease and grace, and they took delight in trying to attack or embarrass her, or in exciting her imagination, the brilliancy of which began to be already perceived. M. Necker was too much amused with the sallies of his daughter's vivacity to check it, and though it was continually leading her into scrapes, she risked every thing to obtain a smile from him. Without daring openly to break through the restraints imposed on her by her mother, she used to slip unobserved behind her father's chair; presently one of the company detached himself from the circle—a second and a third followed, and a noisy group was soon formed round her. M. Necker laughed involuntarily, and all serious conversation was at an end for the evening. What a foundation was here laid for future evils, and what a lesson does the picture afford for parents! What encouragement was here administered to the prevailing faults of childhood, vanity, self love, and fondness for admiration! The defects of Madame de Stael's character were not less strongly marked than her talents, and who does not see how the enemy was sowing tares when the ground should have been furnished with good seed alone?

While she was thus receiving the homage of the witty and the learned, listening to conversations above her age, and entering into all the common-place routine of society, her amusements, as well as serious studies, were systematically made exercises of the mind. When very young, her favourite game was to cut out kings and queens in paper, and to make them play tragedy; a part of which at the present day they seem but too often destined to sustain; and she was so fond of this employment, that when it was forbidden her, she used to hide herself, in order to enjoy it by stealth. It was from this that she acquired the trick of twirling in her fingers a little bit of paper, or a leaf, while she talked. It soon appeared that her physical strength was quite unequal to so much premature exertion of the intellectual powers; her health declined daily; country air and exercise were prescribed, and all serious studies strictly prohibited. Dangerous symptoms, however, quickly disappeared; she recovered her vigour amongst the groves of St. Ouen, and in future life Madame de Stael remained remarkably free from bodily ailments. She required little exercise, and the variations of the seasons, cold or heat, had no effect upon her. The care of her health was at no time an object of her attention. "I might have been ill sometimes, like others, (she used to say) if I had not vanquished (*dompté*) my physical nature."

It is well known, that even in her youth Madame de Stael had no pretensions to beauty. Her mother told Gibbon that she was agreeable, without being handsome; and he rather familiarly says of her, that she was a pleasant little woman, wild, vain, but good natured, and with a much larger proportion of wit than of beauty. Tweddell wrote that she was plain, and had no good feature but her eyes; and yet she contrived by her astonishing powers of speech,

to talk herself into the expression of a *figure* (*countenance*) that was not disagreeable. It was remarked that her eyelids were perhaps rather too heavy; but her eyes had "that nameless spell, which speaks itself unspeakable." Before she uttered a word they kindled with sudden animation, and seemed to announce, like lightning, the thunder of her tongue. With regard to her manners, if politeness is the art of pleasing, as lord Chesterfield defined it, she was the politest woman the world has seen; but at the same time there were certain conventional forms, of which she was less observant than might have been expected from one with whom polished society was not so much the recreation as the necessary food of life. We well remember, during her last visit to England, when she was the idol of the London circles, offences against the established rules of society were eagerly quoted against her by some, who could never pardon her intellectual superiority. Paris was often amused at her expense in a similar manner. The lovers of etiquette were on the alert, and it was whispered that at her first presentation at court, the trimming of her gown was torn, or the prescribed number of reverences were not strictly observed; and that one day, when she was visiting Madame de Polignac, she was so forgetful as to leave her bonnet behind in the carriage. Madame de Stael permitted the laughers to enjoy their triumph, and disarmed them by being the first to notice and smile at her own mistakes.

Madame de Stael did nothing by halves. She was not only fond of intellectual society, but entered with enthusiasm into all its lighter pleasures. She told her daughter, on seeing a minuet danced by Mademoiselle Bigottini, that she was almost tempted, during the dance, to wish for the re-establishment of the *ancien regime*. Scientific music had no effect upon her, and while she was insensible to the originality of some of Haydn's finest pieces, a plaintive air on a wretched street organ, agitated her to excess; and the romance of Mary Stuart, executed by wind instruments, made her burst into tears. She had a good voice and played well herself, and kept in practice till her children were old enough to procure her that kind of gratification which her taste in music required. But of all social amusements, her fondness for theatrical representations was carried to the greatest excess; and she attached to them an interest which even Madame Necker calls prodigious. She was often taken to plays when very young, and at her return she wrote down the subject of the pieces, or the passages which had struck her most forcibly in the acting. She had a private theatre at Coppet, of which La Bedoyère, too well known afterwards for his treachery to Louis, was one of the ablest supporters; and the performances were sometimes the chef-d'œuvre of the French stage, sometimes dramas of her own composition. Her own style of acting was rather pathetic than declamatory; she delivered without particular force those passages which are generally anticipated by an audience as the trials of talent, and then suddenly changing her manner, gave an unexpected sublimity to expressions unnoticed before, and surprised her hearers by striking out new beauties in scenes which every one could repeat by heart. As her acting was always unpremeditated, it varied at each representation, according to the feeling of the moment, and she took great pleasure sometimes in disappointing sometimes in surpassing expectation.

But it was in conversation that the talents of this extraordinary woman were principally displayed. "If I were a queen, (said Madame de Tessé) I would order Madame de Stael to talk to me always." Unrivalled in wit, and second to none in fluency of expression, her discourse was like an inexhaustible stream, swelling from its source, which sparkles as it flows. Her whole soul was so full of ideas, that she seemed to lie under a natural necessity of talking. Among her intimate friends in particular, she is described as surpassing herself; and Madame Necker says, that the most eloquent pages of her writings were completely eclipsed by the rapidity with which her ideas flowed in her familiar intercourse with her friends.

Madame de Stael belonged not to the class of the Desfands and the Geoffrins, the D'Epinays and the De l'Espinasses, of whom we have heard and read too much; for though conversation was really her life of life, as essential to her existence as the air she breathed, or the food which sustained her, yet she did not require that it should be always gay and frivolous, or even that she herself should always bear a part in it. Her friends frequently entertained her with a kind of sham fight, in which the most paradoxical opinions were put forward and defended. If she entered at all into these discussions, she always took the simple side of the question, that which a child or a savage would have chosen; for she had penetration enough to see that real wit is always most advantageously, as well as most wisely, employed in the service of common sense. It is to Madame de Stael's eternal credit that, at a time when the *beaux esprits* of Paris were considered brilliant in proportion as they became more daring in the ridicule of every thing serious and respectable, she never consented to shine at the expense of religion, or to countenance either by example or sufferance the sallies of a free-thinking nation.

With such talents for shining in the world, there is less reason to wonder that its pleasures should have been essential to her happiness, if not to her very being. A sort of panic seized her at the very idea of a stagnant existence, without any of the zest and poignancy of society. Retirement was, in her eyes, "the dreary void, the waste of feelings unemployed," so much dreaded by the poet. Madame de Stael, in the privacy of her own family, was no longer the same fascinating individual, on the eloquence of whose lips a whole circle of auditors had hung delighted, the charm of whose presence acted as a stimulus to give fresh life and energy to the gayest spirits.

It was particularly unfortunate that one so formed should have been unhappy in her first marriage. When no more than ten years old, having observed the pleasure her parents took in Gibbon's society, she took it into her head that it was her duty to marry him, in order to procure them the constant enjoyment of his conversation, and she seriously proposed the

match to her mother. Mon. de Stael was chosen for her husband out of religious obstinacy, as Gibbon characteristically called it, because he was a Protestant; but the difference of their tastes as well as ages, made the connexion undesirable on every other account. After a separation, which the involved state of Mon. de Stael's affairs perhaps had rendered necessary, they were upon the point of meeting in order to live together again, when he was unfortunately carried off by a disorder to which he had been long subject, as he was travelling towards Switzerland. The circumstances of her second marriage with M. Rocca, which she had the weakness not to declare, are now well known. Unlike most imprudent connexions, it did not disappoint her expectations; the enthusiasm of M. Rocca's attachment remained unabated, and Madame de Stael determined, half in joke and half in earnest, to *force* her daughter to make a marriage of inclination. With her children she was reserved in her expressions of maternal tenderness; and their respect for her was in consequence mingled with fear, and where fear enters, there will never be a perfect reciprocation of feeling. She had no belief in the success of extraordinary systems of management. Affected tones of voice, fondling to excess, extravagant expressions of admiration and tenderness, every thing tending to promote vanity and affectation, and, above all, artifice of every sort, were banished from her nursery. She neither coaxed her children to be good, nor tricked them into learning by means of the little games which are designed to teach the elementary parts of knowledge. The truth is, that children are seldom long the dupes of these lessons of amusement, and usually defeat the end in view by a thousand sallies utterly at variance with the instruction which it is wished to convey. We would not have the child dread the lesson hour, but it ought to be considered as such; and perhaps at first the advantage to be desired, is not so much a rapid development of the intellect, as the habits of self denial and moral discipline.

Madame de Stael's influence in public affairs was certainly considerable during the latter years of her life, but more we think from the ascendancy of her opinion on whatever subject it was given, than from the exercise of any direct interference; nor can we conceive how she can be said to have "marked a new epoch in political science." Her bias was always towards the party in opposition, for which she gave a curious reason—"*Le parti ministériel voit le côté prosiique de l'humanité, et l'opposition le côté poetique.*" The national independence was one of her ruling passions. It seemed to her the only legitimate cause of war, and she even sacrificed to it her love of liberty. In 1815, when some of the French royalists passed by Coppet in their way to join the allied forces, she endeavoured to dissuade them from their design, lest in their efforts to overthrow the military despotism, her favourite principle should be sacrificed. From the battle of Leipsic she began to tremble for France, and the news of the taking of Paris afflicted her severely, though that event terminated her exile. She again quitted Paris in 1817, with a resolution of not returning till the army under the duke of Wellington had left the country, writing at the same time to her son-in-law the duke de Broglie, that she had need of much happiness in her private affections to enable her to support the situation in which France was placed with regard to foreigners. Even in the political advantages of England, the image of future France presented itself to her fancy; she admired our national character, but regarded it as the tardy fruit of our excellent institutions; man in the abstract, the human force and intelligence, seemed to her superior in France.

Above all, she had a strong conviction of the native energy of the French character. Mr. Canning, we are told, said to her one day at the Tuilleries, "You must deceive yourselves no longer, Madame, France has submitted to us, and we have conquered you." "True," answered she, "but you had with you Europe and the Cossacks; let us meet tête-à-tête, and then we shall see." Some one has told this ungallant anecdote before, and it has been contradicted, but we know not on what authority.

After all, it seems to us that Madame de Stael deceived herself with regard to her feelings for France. It was Paris rather than France which was her proper country. It was the brilliant circles of Paris that she regretted, and on the animation of its society that all her interest was centered. "Give me the rue du Bac," was her answer to some one who tried to make her admire the lake of Geneva and its beautiful banks, "I could live at Paris in a garret with 100 Louis per annum." She was concealed there for a few days in the year 1806, and her principal amusement was to walk out at night to see the streets by moonlight. The garden of the Tuilleries or the petits soupés of the Fauxbourg St. Germain, with the "pleasing anxious being" which she there enjoyed, had more charms for her than all the sublime or smiling scenes of nature, than the lakes and mountains and glaciers of Switzerland, or the blue sky and classical associations of Italy. The beauties of the country were in her eyes only the decorations of exile. Yet it is remarkable that the descriptions of nature, which occur in her works, are very graphic, particularly that of the general aspect of Germany, and of its Gothic and chivalrous remains.

Madame de Stael's quickness of feeling is well known. Her cousin says of her, and we think truly, "tout partoit du cœur chez elle, même la pénsee." Her soul had more life in it than that of ordinary persons, more powers of thought, of perception, and of emotion. Her imagination was always at work, but if it was the source of many pleasures, it was also a source of much suffering; if she was indebted to it for the originality of her genius, she also owed to it the loss of her tranquillity; if it made her enter with cagerness into the enjoyments of life, it made her feel its sorrows too acutely to be happy. Every thing in her shows the misery of being the slave of one's feelings; she became a prey to phantoms of her own creating; Madame Necker's strong phrase is that she was a "femme malheureuse;" and her first impressions were, partly from system and partly from habit, the law of her conduct. She acted always as her own Corinne or Delphine would have done in similar circumstances. The excess of her sensibility showed itself in various ways. She was affected even to tears at meeting with

any remarkable trait of malignity—the praise of her parents had a similar effect on her—and her heart beat with a violence which was perceptible at the sight of any celebrated personages. The world, in her view of it, consisted of only two classes; the feeling (les êtres sensibles), and the cold hearted (les froids), and it was among the first that all her associates were chosen. She was romantic in her attachments, and enthusiastic in expressing them.

The heart of a woman so constituted was of course open to pity. Madame de Stael thought that distress had not only a claim on her compassion, but on her esteem. The unfortunate victims of the revolution were of course the objects of her sympathy; she employed her pen in defence of Maria Antoinette; and during the bloody reign of Robespierre, all her faculties were absorbed by the desire of rescuing as many as possible from his murderous grasp; and she never rested till she had provided an asylum not only for themselves, but for their families and friends.

We know not how to convey an adequate idea of Madame de Stael's love for her father. Like Aaron's rod, it swallowed up every other feeling. She wrote to Chateaubriand that she had constantly been the same, whether gay or melancholy, the objects of her love had always been God, her father, and liberty.

A Frenchman wrote a book against Madame de Stael, entitled, "L'Anti-Romantique," in which she was ridiculed unmercifully; it was a clever work, and she was so far from feeling resentment on her own account, that she wished to have cultivated the acquaintance of the author; but there was unfortunately a word or two against her father, and the offence was unpardonable. After Necker's death she entertained a superstitious feeling respecting him, which in some degree alleviated the bitterness of her grief. Having experienced some relief in a journey she took into Italy soon after that event, she attributed it to his intercession; from a conviction that he was constantly protecting, consoling, and succouring her. She invoked him in her prayers, and when any fortunate event occurred to her, she always said, *mon père a obtenu cela pour moi.*

It was from her father that Madame de Stael derived an antipathy bordering on intolerance for all mediocrity of character. It was one of her favourite maxims that if people were stupid it was their own fault, and if she had power she would make a law that all the world should be witty. Dulness was insupportable to her, and a bon-mot, or a sally of the imagination, was a little benefit which called forth from her an effusion of gratitude. Lord Byron, especially in his first productions, was one of her favourite authors, and she created anew in more instances than one from the conceptions with which his poetry inspired her.

Her taste in reading was for the serious and solemn, for what supplied food for the imagination, rather than for abstract subjects, and in general what amused her most was what made her weep. On being asked what book she would choose, if restricted to the possession of a single volume, after excepting the Bible, and the "Cours de morale religieuse" of her father, she did English literature the honour to select Bacon as the author who afforded the most inexhaustible store of thoughts. René, the episode of Velleda, in the Martyrs, and the scene of the funeral in the Antiquary, were among the passages which she most admired, and whenever she met with any thing that particularly pleased her, she was never satisfied till all her friends had seen it. She read quick without being superficial, and was familiar with the best part of European literature, without having spent any great portion of time in acquiring a knowledge of it, for she was neither an assiduous nor an abstracted reader.

But, if we were to select that feature in Madame de Stael's character which distinguished her most advantageously from the rest of the world, we should say that it was a perspicacious mind.

Her trade, if we may so express ourselves, was the observation of human nature, an hereditary talent derived from both her parents; and she was so fond of exercising it, that if led to the scaffold, she said, she must have passed her judgment on the friends who accompanied her. Her opinions were formed at first sight, and a more intimate knowledge generally confirmed her original impression; which is remarkable, considering the illusory views of things, which in other respects her imagination was perpetually forming.

There were in Madame de Stael some of those contradictions of character, which are sometimes found to exist so singularly in the same person. Her strength of mind for instance seems to have forsaken her whenever she ceased to speak or laid down the pen. Far from placing confidence in her own powers, she was irresolute in taking the most trifling decisions, and referred to her father for advice respecting her personal expenses, her dress, her domestic arrangements, the management of her children. When he died, the chain which held every thing together seemed to be broken—all would go wrong—her fortune would be ruined—her children would be ill brought up—her servants would no longer obey her orders—and to the remonstrances of her friends on the childishness of such groundless alarms, her only answer was *C'est que je n'ai plus mon père.* Fear was another of her weaknesses, one of the greatest curses to which her lively imagination exposed her. It is really painful to see her after the publication of the profoundest work which has yet issued from a female pen, had exposed her to the resentment of Bonaparte, trembling on the frontiers of France, dreading to quit them yet afraid to stay, wasting her strength in irresolute and unavailing conflicts, and without courage to fly till the danger of delay became too pressing to be disregarded.

But her fears quickly excited, were sometimes as quickly allayed. In the midst of her alarm for M. Rocca, and whilst he still really continued in a very precarious state, she suddenly conceived a notion that he was in no danger, and passed from a state of anxiety bordering on distraction, into one of childish security. Again her constitutional gaiety was sometimes strangely contrasted with a tincture of melancholy, which seemed to be as it were the groundwork of her lightest sallies. Her conversation at one time turned almost entirely on the gravest sub-

jects, and it was not till the contagion of her solemn phrases had made her drawing-room like the cave of Trophonius, that she took a disgust at the affectation of sentiment.

It is singular that M. Necker should have had a great dislike to female writers, and he actually interdicted his wife from composition, lest the idea of disturbing her should prevent his entering her room whenever he was at leisure. His daughter was under great fear lest the prohibition should be extended to her, and accustomed herself to write standing, or leaning against a corner of the chimneypiece, that she might never seem to be interrupted in any serious occupation. It was not till after Corinne had raised her to such extraordinary celebrity, that she had any regular writing implements which she could call her own. It then struck her that she might be allowed the luxury of a writing table.

It does not appear that she set apart any particular time for study; the care of her fortune occupied the morning, society and correspondence the afternoon; friends were always welcomed with eagerness, and amongst all these interruptions she was laying the foundation of some new literary project, or planning the subjects and titles of her chapters. In 1761, when the Compte Rêndu first appeared, she wrote an anonymous letter to her father, who however speedily recognized his daughter's style. At fifteen years old, she made an analysis of the Esprit des Loix with reflections, and the three Nouvelles published in 1795, were written before she was twenty. The Abbé Raynal also tried to persuade her while she was still very young, to compose a chapter on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, to be inserted in his history. Perhaps our readers may not be aware that most of her first attempts were poetical; besides some shorter pieces, she wrote a comedy in verse and two tragedies. With all our admiration for the genius of Madame de Stael, there is much that we would blot from her writings. She speaks like a child on subjects connected with religion; her account of it in Germany is confessedly the worst part of the book; and whenever she recurs to the topic a new proof is afforded of the vanity of all knowledge and intellectual superiority which is not founded upon right grounds. We walk amongst the flowers of her imagination as if there was a chance of treading unawares on some hidden danger; or our enthusiasm is suddenly checked by some reverie on the perfectibility of human nature, or declamation against a church establishment, or a consideration of the passions only with reference to the happiness of man, and not as they influence the conduct.

We wish to say nothing of Madame de Stael's religious feelings. Madame Necker rates them very highly, but we fear her standard of merit differs greatly from the balance of the sanctuary. She finds it written in her manual, that the Almighty will be merciful to genius: *Dieu sera clément envers le génie.* We read a somewhat different lesson: *Unto whomsoever much is given, of him shall be much required.* Madame de Stael's devotion was evidently of the speculative cast, a sort of poetical belief which was far from being constantly applied even by herself to the situations of real life. She had in view the consequences of her actions rather than their motives. Her mind was filled with vague illusions, which were at times puerile, and at times something worse. She imagined that her deceased friends would perhaps one day procure for her, *as a part of their recompense,* the blessing of being reunited to them. Death was to her, in the most emphatic sense, the king of terrors; it was in vain she repeated to herself, *mon père m'attend sur l'autre bord,* and tried to quiet her fears by the hope that she was about to rejoin them; a bitter regret of life was betrayed in all her expressions, and not one of the peculiar consolations of religion poured its balm over the closing scene. We confess that in our view of the case the lesson which Madame de Stael's life is calculated to convey is humiliating to our self-complacent feelings. It teaches us that the gifts of sensibility and the imagination are dangerous for our fallen state; and that the best faculties of the mind, if not watched and restrained with perpetual vigilance, sometimes have a tendency not to elevate our religious affections, but rather to direct them from their proper course.

ALI PACHA.

As his approaching contest with the Porte has attracted the public attention to the celebrated Ali Pacha, the account contained in a succeeding article of his person and history, with the character of his subjects, may be acceptable to our readers.

The following extract is taken from an article on Hobhouse's Travels in Albania, &c. in the British Review of 1813. The account of the interview with Ali is from the pen of the author, the residue by the reviewer. The character of the chieftain and his followers, together with the natural strength of the country, and the rising spirit of resistance to their oppressors, which will doubtless rally the Greek to any standard raised in opposition to their despotic masters, gives no light promise of success to their common efforts to throw off the Turkish yoke. Should they be successful, the consequences will probably be fatal to the imbecile power which is permitted to exist by the mere sufferance of Russia, and terminate the rule of ignorance, superstition and cruelty over that once favoured part of Europe. It is only in this general result that we are interested. Independence of foreign control must be the first step to national improvement in any portion of the world: and if the inhabitants of the Turkish provinces succeed in freeing themselves from the dominion of the Porte, they will soon modify or shake off the despotism which may for a time take its place.

In another point of view the result of the contest is important; if the Turkish provinces become independent, the accession of strength to the preponderating force of Russia, which has so long been apprehended from their subjugation by the overthrow of the Porte, will be prevented, and some additional check provided against the increase of her immense power.

[*N. Y. American.*

"The vizier (Ali) was a short man,

about five feet five inches in height, and very fat, though not particularly corpulent. He had a very pleasing face, fair, and round, with blue quick eyes, not at all settled into a Turkish gravity. His beard was long and white, and such a one as any other Turk would have been proud of; though he was more taken up with his guests than himself, did not continue looking at, nor smelling and stroking it, as is usually the custom of his countrymen, to fill up the pauses of conversation. He was not very magnificently dressed, except that his high turban, composed of many small rolls, seemed of fine gold muslin, and his attaghan, or long dagger, was studded with brilliants.

"He was mightily civil; said he considered us as his children. He showed us a mountain howitzer, which was lying in his apartment, and took the opportunity of telling us that he had several large cannon. He turned two or three times to look through a telescope, and at last handed it to us, that we might look at a party of Turks on horseback, riding along the banks of the river towards Tepellene. He then said, 'that man whom you see on the road is the chief minister of my enemy, Ibrahim Pasha, and he is now coming over to me, having deserted his master to take the stronger side.' He addressed this with a smile to the secretary, desiring him to interpret it to us.

"We took pipes, coffee, and sweetmeats, with him—but he did not seem so particular about these things as other Turks whom we have seen. He was in a great good humour, and several times laughed aloud, which is very uncommon in a man of consequence—I never saw another instance of it in Turkey. Instead of his having his room crowded with the officers of his court, which is very much the custom of the pashas and other great men, he was quite unattended, except by four or five young persons very magnificently dressed in the Albanian habit, and having their hair flowing half way down their backs: these brought in the refreshments, and continued supplying us with pipes, which, though perhaps not half emptied, were changed three times, as is the custom when particular honours are intended for a guest.

"There are no common topics of discourse between a Turkish vizier and a traveller, which can discover the abilities of either party, especially as these conversations are always in the form of question and answer. However, a Frank may think his Turk above the common run, if his host does not put any very foolish interrogatories to him, and Ali did not ask any questions that betrayed his ignorance. His liveliness and ease gave us very favourable impressions of his natural capacity."

An account of the progress of Ali to the attainment of his present power may be very succinctly given. He was born at Tepellene, in the year 1750. At the death of his father, who was a pasha of two tails, of no great importance, he was left with nothing but his house at Tepellene, and is said to have begun his fortune with sixty paras and a musket.

Having embraced the profession of a military adventurer, in plainer language as a plunderer, he succeeded in mastering one village after another, amassing the produce of his depredations, until he found himself possessed of considerable resources, both of territory and riches. His ambition kept pace with his fortune, and having collected enough money to purchase a pashalik, he maintained a constant war with the neighbouring pashas, till at length he obtained possession of Ioannina, of which he was confirmed pasha by an imperial firman. The pashas of Arta, Delvino, and Ourida, were successively subdued by his arms; Giafar, the pasha of Valona, was poisoned by him: and Mouctan and Veli, his two sons, were married to the daughters of Ibrahim, the brother and successor of the murdered Giafar. Having fought against Paswan Oglou, on the side of the sultan, he was constituted, on his return from Widdin in the year 1798, a pasha of three tails, or vizier. All offers to be made grand vizier he has constantly refused. Since the establishment of his power he has greatly diminished the number of robbers throughout his dominions, and has promoted, by his various internal improvements, the prosperity of his subjects, as well as his own revenue. His influence is felt through the whole of European Turkey; and his dominions, taking Ioannina for the centre, extend one hundred and twenty miles towards the north, as far as the pashalik of Ocrida; to the northeast and east over Thessaly, touching the feet of Mount Olympus; to the southeast the district of Thebes and part of that which is attached to the Negroponte, including the populous city of Livadia and its district, bound his territories, which will soon, it is expected, comprise Attica. To the south, he commands as far as the gulf of Lepanto, and the morea belongs to his son. The Ionian sea and the gulf of Venice are his boundaries to the southwest and west, and to the northwest

the pashalik of Scutari and the banks of the Drino. Parga, on the coast opposite to Corfu, belongs to the French, and the Chimeriotes can scarcely be said to depend entirely on his authority.

Throughout the whole extent of country the imperial firman is little respected, while the signature of Ali commands implicit obedience. His revenue, Mr. Hobhouse observes, he has seen computed at 600,000 piastres, by the disposal of which he is enabled to carry forward his schemes of aggrandizement. It must not be forgotten that all his work is done for nothing, and his harem, as well as his kitchen and stables, is supplied without expense to his own coffers. The chief resources of his establishment consist in the produce of rapine, and compulsory contribution.

The cruelties said to have been committed by Ali belong rather to the barbarity of the Turks, than to the particular disposition of the tyrant. The Albanians are said to have a remarkable contempt for women, and where the lives of human beings are in general so little valued, the lives of the least respected portion of the species will naturally become the sport of cruelty, vengeance and passion. But let the sex in their turn triumph in the reflection, that social refinement may be measured by the degree of honour in which their merits and capacities are held.

The Albanians, according to Mr. Hobhouse, whose language we are using, are of a middle stature, muscular and straight in their make. Their faces are of an oval shape, with prominent cheek bones, and a flat but raised forehead; the expression of their eyes, which are blue or hazel, but seldom quite black, is very lively. Their noses are straight, and their eyebrows arched. They wear no hair on the forepart of their heads, but suffer it to flow down in large quantities from the top of the crown. The Albanian women are tall and strong, and not ill looking, but bearing in their countenances all the marks of wretchedness, hard treatment, and hard labour.

The Albanian costume, when clean and new, is, according to our traveller, incomparably more elegant than any worn in the Turkish empire. Their jackets are often of velvet, richly worked with gold and silver embroidery, but the clothes of the common people are of a disgusting appearance. Their linen is rarely changed, and their practice of sleeping on the ground, without debarrassing themselves of their thick woollen jacket, mantle, and capotte, must afford too good a shelter for vermin; and the truth is, that from the grand seignor, downwards to the meanest subject, every man harbours a number, greater or less, of these detestable little animals, which, when greatly mutiplied, become the cause and symptom, as Mr. Hobhouse expresses, of incurable disease.

The houses of the Albanians are generally very neat, though from the situation of the fireplace, which is in the middle of the floor, without a proper chimney for the escape of the smoke, much inconvenience is felt by a foreigner. Their furniture makes but a modest inventory. A large circular tray of thin iron or tin, on which they eat, which they scour very bright, a pan to mix their meal in, a wooden bowl or two, and a few horn spoons; some jars for oil and wine; a small copper coffee jug, and a brass lamp; three or four mats of white rushes, and one stool; and a round block of wood on which the tray is placed—are all the articles usually to be seen in their cottages; and these are kept in a neat deal cupboard, or wooden chest.

As each house has a garden attached to it, there is a spacious and airy distance between them, insomuch that Albania has been said to exhibit eligible models for village buildings. But, if many of the houses were buried within a succession of walls like that in which the author was lodged at Ereeneed, we should object to them as being too symptomatic of the predatory habit of the people. The green space at the end of each of these villages, shaded with a large tree, and set apart for holiday amusements, was more agreeable to our English associations, and seemed to relax for a moment the grim features of despotism.

The inhabitants of Albania are generally temperate, cold water being the usual drink, and wheaten or barley bread, cakes of boiled or roasted maize, cheese made of goat's milk, and rice mixed with butter, eggs, dried fish, olives, and vegetables, being their principal food. An ardent spirit, however, extracted from grape husks and barley, not unlike whiskey, coffee, and sometimes liquors made at Cefalonia and Corfu, are to be found in the houses of the richer part of them.

The life of the Albanian mountaineer fluctuates between peril and repose; at the summons of his pasha he is ready to seize his gun and plunge into the woods: and when at leisure from the wars of his village (for it appears that even the villages wage war with each other) or district, his delight is to smoke, to eat, to drink, to doze, to

bask in the sunshine, or to stroll round the garden of his cottage.

But although this indolence of disposition belongs to the Albanians, it does not appear to be accompanied by the apathy so commonly characteristic of the Turks. They are lively and passionate, and frequently indulge in loud laughter or lamentation, and other vehement expressions of joy and sorrow. As each individual is a redressor of his own wrongs, bloodshed is but too common, and a blow is revenged by the instant death of the offender.

Most of them speak Greek, and if they write at all, as their own is not a written language, they write in Greek. The Turkish language is known to few of them. Of their morals, Mr. Hobhouse says he feels no inclination to speak; and we must suppose him to insinuate that they are in the grossest state, since in the next sentence he represents them as treating their women as their cattle, and to have no part in what we call the tender passion.

LONDON SOCIETY FOR THE CONVERSION OF THE JEWS.

The following is Mr. Nitschke's reply to the question, "Which division of the present Jewish race affords, under the divine blessing, the greatest hopes of success?"

"At this time the Jewish nation," he remarks, "may be suitably divided into the following five classes:

"1. Enlightened persons, who lay aside the Mosaic law and the traditions of the elders, profess pure Theism, and endeavour to introduce among their nation the principles of mere morality. They properly aim at natural religion; most of them are disciples of the late Jewish philosopher Mendelshon; though many of them still observe the revealed law of God. This class, which has spread much, and consists of the best informed part of the Jews, wish to make common cause with the Christians, while they do not desire to believe in the name and salvation of the Son of God, and are enemies of the cross of Christ. Among them little hopes can be entertained of gaining entrance with the glorious gospel of Jesus Christ; and though they manifest moral sentiments, they would probably become only nominal Christians. The adherents of this party have recently built synagogues at Berlin and Hamburg, and regulated their divine worship agreeably to Christian usages, singing hymns accompanied by an organ, and having sermons delivered from a text of the Old Testament.

"2. The Sabsaids, a mystical sect, who abound in fanciful notions, and suppose to find in these more wisdom, than in that wisdom which is from above, and which makes known to us the mystery of godliness.

"3. The Karaits, who, from their religious principles, as far as I am acquainted with them, might probably be convinced with less difficulty of the truths of salvation in Christ, and be less averse to embrace these truths.

"4. The orthodox Jews, as they call themselves, who steadfastly adhere to the Mosaic law and to the tradition of their elders, and who still constitute the majority of this nation, especially in Poland. They live, generally speaking, in the greatest blindness and ignorance of heart, and are hardened in unbelief: nevertheless, among them it is not improbable that the light of the gospel will first dispel the darkness of unbelief, when the Lord by his almighty fiat says, Let there be light.

"5. That not inconsiderable party among the Jews, who have no religion at all, are atheists, and live without God in the world, maintaining themselves chiefly by usury and fraud, and manifest neither a religious nor moral disposition.

"With the Portuguese Jews, who are regarded the nobility of this nation, and with the Oriental Jews, I am unacquainted; nor do I know whether any adherents of the former sect of Chasadim in Poland are still in existence.

"It may be difficult to decide, to which division of the Jews the society should chiefly direct its attention. We know not the times and seasons, which the Father has put in his own power, for restoring the kingdom to Israel; but we ought to observe the signs of the present times, as an emotion is perceptible among this nation which has not been observed at any former period.

"The Spirit of the Lord must direct the undertakings of the society, and open doors for successful labour among the lost sheep of the house of Israel, and we ought frequently to unite before the throne of grace in fervent prayer and supplication for them. Deliver, O Lord, the people of Israel from their blindness, lead them to know thee, and to enjoy thy salvation; that many of them may with us attain to the possession of the glorious inheritance which is promised and reserved for us in heaven."

AFRICA.

Burckhardt, in his Travels in Africa, gives an interesting account of the valley of Ghor, which lies south of, and about sixteen miles distant from, the extremity of the Dead sea. Its name is changed into that of Arabia, and it runs in almost a straight line, declining somewhat to the west as far as Akaba, at the extremity of the eastern branch of the Red sea. The existence of this valley seems to have been unknown to ancient as well as modern geographers, although it is a very remarkable feature of the geography of Syria and Arabia Petrea, and is still more interesting for its productions. In this valley, this excellent and lamented traveller says, *Manna* is still found; it drops from the sprigs of several trees, but principally from the Gharrab; it is collected by the Arabs, who make cakes of it, which they eat with butter. They call it Assal Beyrouk, or honey of Beyrouk.

"It is probable," (says Mr. B.) "that the trade between Jerusalem and the Red sea, was carried on through this valley. The caravan, loaded at Ezlongebir with the treasures of Ophir, might, after a march of six or seven days, deposit its loads in the warehouses of Solomon." This valley deserves to be thoroughly known; its examination will lead to many interesting discoveries, and would be one of the most important objects of a Palestine traveller. It is very interesting for its antiquities, and the remains of an ancient city, which Mr. Burckhardt conjectured to be Petræ, the capital of Arabia Petrea, a place which it is believed no European traveller ever visited. In the red sandstone, of which the valley is composed, are upwards of two hundred and fifty sepulchres, entirely cut out of the rock, the greater part of them with Grecian ornaments. There is a mausoleum in the shape of a temple, of colossal dimensions, likewise cut out of the rock, with all its apartments, its vestibule, peristyle, &c. It is a most beautiful specimen of Grecian architecture, and in perfect preservation. There are other mausolea, with obelisks, apparently in the Egyptian style, a whole amphitheatre cut out of the rock, with the remains of a palace and of several temples. Upon the summit of the mountain which closes the narrow valley on its western side, is the tomb of Haroun (Aaron, brother of Moses). It is held in great veneration by the Arabs. "If I recollect right (says Mr. B.) there is a passage in Eusebius, in which he says that the tomb of Aaron was situated near Petræ."

A seller of cakes in the west end of London, is about to bring his business to good account. His voice is said to be most powerful, and his cries of "*Nice, hot, Yorkshire cakes,*" have so annoyed the inhabitants, that one lady in Berkley street, has granted him a pension of half a crown a week to keep out of that street. He is said to be in treaty with others, who make him liberal offers. He calculates shortly to retire upon his pensions, amply provided for.

Poetry.

The following stanzas are from the pen of the poet Montgomery. They have never before appeared in print; we having been favoured with them by a friend who received them from the poet. They evince, as indeed do all Mr. M.'s writings, that he is not only a good poet but a good man. [*Catskill Recorder.*

ON PRAYER.

Prayer is the soul's sincere desire,
Utter'd or unexpressed;
The motion of a hidden fire,
That trembles in the breast.

Prayer is the burden of a sigh,
The falling of a tear;
The upward glancing of an eye,
When none but God is near.

Prayer is the simplest form of speech,
That infant lips can try;
Prayer the sublimest strains that reach,
The Majesty on high.

Prayer is the Christian's vital breath,
The Christian's native air;
His watchword at the gates of death,
He enters Heaven with prayer.

Prayer is the contrite sinner's voice,
Returning from his ways;
While angels in their songs rejoice,
And cry, "behold he prays."

In prayer on earth, the saints are one—
In word, in deed, in mind;
When with the Father and the Son
Sweet fellowship they find.

Nor prayer is made on earth alone;
The Holy Spirit pleads;
And Jesus on the eternal throne,
For sinners intercedes.

O! Thou, by whom we come to God,
The life, the truth, the way!
The path of prayer thyself hast trod—
Lord, teach us how to pray!

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Miscellany.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

MATERIALISM.

Berkeley's argument against the existence of a material world, is thus stated by Dr. Reid: "If we have any knowledge of a material world, it must be by the senses: but by the senses we have no knowledge, but of our sensations only; and our sensations, which are attributes of mind, can have no resemblance to any qualities of a thing that is inanimate." It is observed by Dr. R., that "the only proposition in this demonstration which admits of doubt, is, that by our senses we have the knowledge of our sensations only, and of nothing else. Grant this, and the conclusion is irresistible."—*Stewart's Essays*, note E.

Now it appears to me, that the fallacy consists in making it appear that the fact that our sensations can have no resemblance to any qualities of a thing that is inanimate, is connected with the question. It does not bear upon the point, but is merely a verbal dispute. And when we say that we have a sensation of heat, from the action of fire upon us; we do not mean to assert that fire is similar to the sensation that we have, but that it causes that sensation. Though it be allowed that there is nothing in things inanimate, that is similar to our sensations of them, this will not disprove their existence; which is as clearly proved by their producing sensations, as it would be by establishing it as a truth, that those sensations resemble them.

Though this seems perfectly clear to me, I am afraid, from its opposition to the opinions of Stewart and Reid, that there is some fallacy in it, and would therefore respectfully invite a discussion of the question.

R.

From the New York Literary Journal.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

NO. III.

In my last I gave a sketch of some of the prominent advantages attending a proper cultivation of classical literature. It is obvious, that in this country these advantages can never be realized in their full extent, unless some radical reformation take place in our system of instruction. Although scarcely a hope is entertained that this will soon be accomplished, I shall nevertheless concisely advert to some of the abuses, the correction of which must precede the establishment of classical learning upon a solid and durable foundation.

The *fundamental error* pervading the system of classical education in the United States, is the deficiency in our school instruction, preliminary to an entrance into our colleges. This is an evil so great and so obvious, that it has not failed to attract the attention of the guardians of our literature: and some honourable efforts have been made to rectify it. These, however, have been limited in their influence, and will not very materially affect the character, which we shall be constrained to give of the general practice in this country. As our literary institutions vary somewhat in their requirements, no general statement can be of universal application. But it will not be considered very wide of the truth to assert, that a boy of ordinary capacity can acquire in two, or at most three years, all the knowledge of Greek and Latin that is necessary to insure a reputable admission into most of our colleges. In proof of this, it need only be stated, that the statutes of the generality of our literary colleges require from the candidates, nothing more than an acquaintance with the Greek Testament, Virgil's Æneid, and Cicero's Select Orations, either in whole or in part. It is not pretended, that the same authors are required in the different institutions; they are the actual requirements in some, and are a fair specimen of the *extent* of classical reading that is demanded in most of the others. There are some honourable exceptions, which we are proud to mention; one of which shall be noticed more particularly hereafter. I refer to Columbia College, and Harvard University, in both of which classical erudition is com-

manding a very large share of attention, and they bid fair to have a powerful influence in establishing the classical character of our country. Most of our colleges, however, are very far from attaching the same degree of importance to this branch of knowledge. And it is to them that we must principally attribute the contracted course of our preliminary studies. The college must necessarily become the standard to the school, and the terms prescribed by the former will inevitably be the limit to the acquisitions of the latter. It is thus, that scanty preliminary attainments are countenanced and even sanctioned by our highest literary institutions; and the whole system throughout is again upheld by popular opinion, which is unquestionably hostile to an expanded plan of classical instruction. It is obvious that a system thus supported and fortified by public sentiment and established usage, will not easily or speedily be overturned.

If any thing, however, is to be done in the way of effectual reform, this error must primarily be corrected. We never shall be able to rear a succession of thorough bred scholars in this country, until our schools assume something of the character of those celebrated schools of Eton and Westminster, which, perhaps, more than her universities, have been the substantial props of English literature. In these institutions a complete course embraces *ten* years, and experience has decided that time not to be too long. Now, if ten years are found necessary at these celebrated seminaries to form good classical scholars, by what magic, it may be asked, are they to be made in the United States in three or four? It is useless to object, that this is an unreasonable sacrifice of life and industry in the acquisition of a single branch of knowledge. The experience of European nations is a sufficient refutation to this assertion; for their greatest men have been formed upon this very system. In this country, other notions unhappily prevail; and it is argued, that most of our young men are intended for active business, and, therefore, they ought not to devote so much of their time to acquiring a knowledge of Greek and Latin. The fact contained in this objection cannot be doubted; but I deny that it is at all applicable. It is not necessary that young men, who are designed for commercial pursuits, should spend *any* time upon these studies. I should imagine it just as essential for a blacksmith to understand astronomy, as for them to be acquainted with the dead languages. No! there are other and more useful pursuits to which they should direct their attention. But, at any rate, if they are ambitious of aspiring to classical erudition, let not *their* convenience be consulted at the expense of sound and solid learning. It is, indeed, prostituting the sacred cause of literature, to place on a level the high attributes of the scholar, with the meagre and paltry acquisitions that suffice for the dealer in dry goods or in hardware. It is high time that this should be corrected; and until it is, we shall continue to witness the disgraceful sight of men, with no other pretensions than an ordinary education, pluming themselves upon their acquisitions, and with no other pioneers than ignorance and conceit, venturing on the most difficult paths of literature. Illustrations are needless; they must suggest themselves at once to every reader; and it is to this circumstance that the low state of our literature may, in a great degree, be referred, as well as the contempt in which it is held abroad.

Another error in our system of classical education, is to be found in the *manner* in which it is conducted in our colleges. In this respect our colleges are literally converted into grammar schools, where the pupil is led to believe that the study of languages implies nothing more than simply translating, declining, and conjugating words. This degradation of our literary institutions depends so intimately upon the deficiency in the preliminary course, that, we shall never cease to lament the one until the other has been rectified.

To give some idea how classical tuition should be conducted, so as to derive from it all the high benefits which it may confer, I shall present the following account of the mode in which it is pursued in the University of Glasgow, taken from a work entitled "a View of the System of Education at present pursued in the schools and universities of Scotland." By the Rev. M. Russel, M. A.

"Let it not be imagined that the readings which I have mentioned are the meagre, verbal translation, which gives the meaning of an author and nothing more; for they are not only accompanied with a careful analysis of words and sentences into their etymological principles; but are also made the subjects of interesting speculations on the laws of human thought and feeling; on the progress of refinement and intelligence among the nations of antiquity; on their legislation, government and customs, their manners in peace, their practices in war, and, in short, on every

thing that is suggested by the literature of those renowned states, which spoke the Greek and Roman tongues. The students in these classes have presented to them the philosophy of language, and the theory of universal grammar; and the whole business is calculated, not so much *to add to their stock of literature or mere vocabulary of words, as to supply materials for reasoning on those faculties of mind which carry men to produce and to admire works of genius:* for tracing distinctions in style to certain habits of thought and characters of feeling in nations and individuals; for pointing out beauties of universal acceptation, as well as the varying hues of local and transitory ornament, which circumstances alone could have recommended; for explaining, in short, the canons of Catholic taste and criticism, and thus establishing their authority on the basis of knowledge, as well as on that of faith and tradition." p. 63, 64.

This is certainly a model worthy of universal imitation: and, it is only by adopting such a course, that our colleges can be expected to "send forth taste, eloquence and strong reasoning powers," and that we can hope to see issuing from them "a stream of matured intellect, instead of trifling, as the American colleges have been too much accustomed to do, by ringing the changes upon the alphabet and syllables of their classical horn book."*

The correspondent who has kindly sent us the following paper, received by him from England, will please accept our thanks. We have, however, little hope that any effectual assistance can be given to the poor, in any other way than by giving them a good education, and teaching them to depend on themselves. In savings banks, to which our correspondent alludes, the depositors pay all the expenses, and receive no assistance, other than that derived from the aggregation of their deposits. *This* is to be the final result of the Dorking Association.

On the Means of alleviating the Condition of the Poor.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE COUNTY CHRONICLE.

Sir—Passing a few days since through the town of Dorking, my attention was powerfully excited by a printed statement which accident threw in my way, detailing some particulars of an institution formed in that town for assisting the poorer classes of society.

The increased and rapidly increasing number of our poor, is a subject of such general and paramount importance, that I cannot doubt your readily affording publicity, through the medium of your journal, to such particulars as I have collected regarding a society, which appears to have taken up this important question on a principle, which, if not absolutely novel, has at least in no other instance within my knowledge been carried into such complete effect.

As your columns will not admit of minute detail, I will as concisely as possible, state the plan and object of this establishment, in the anxious hope that the subject may attract public attention.

Although of inconsiderable extent, the parish of Dorking is strictly agricultural, being destitute of a single manufactory, and contains, according to the enumeration of 1811, a population of only 3,259 souls. From the well known beauty of the surrounding neighbourhood, it is perhaps more thickly studded with seats and villas than any part of the island, and it may be confidently asserted, that in no vicinage is the benevolence of their opulent possessors more generally and more liberally dispensed; and as every mansion necessarily furnishes employment for labourers, whose comforts become invariably an object of benevolent solicitude with their employers, a diminished number of parochial poor must be an evident consequence. Hence with this preventive aid, the equable demand for labour, created by agriculture, and an absolute exemption from the incertitude and fluctuation arising from manufacturing employment, it were natural to conclude, that the number of individuals requiring permanent or occasional parochial relief must be comparatively small.

Judge, then, of my astonishment on finding from authentic documents, that in the year 1816, of a population, as I have stated, of only 3,259 souls, no fewer than *one-third* had in that year received permanent or occasional relief from the parish! This extraordinary fact, coupled with the then decreasing rate of wages, and increasing difficulty of obtaining agricultural employment, excited such deep and general anxiety, that the late earl of Rothes, in conjunction with the neighbouring gentry, proposed a public meeting of the inhabitants, to take the subject into consideration. At that meeting much valuable information, the result of minute inquiry and mature reflection, was communicated.

That a superfluity of labourers, with a concurrent reduction in the price of labour, should have a direct tendency to increase pauperism, is incontrovertible. An opinion, nevertheless, was entertained, by such as had patiently and dispassionately investigated the subject, that however the difficulties of the labourer might be aggravated by these fortuitous circumstances, he nevertheless, for the most part, is accessary to his own misery, by the inconsiderate and improvident manner in which the produce of his labour is usually applied. If, in other classes, frugality, self denial, prudent management, and a consideration of future wants, be essential to the attainment of independence and comfort, how much more indispensable is the rigorous exercise of these qualities in the management of the labourer's pittance!

But, whether from the result of *ignorance, irresolution*, or *despair*, the labourer certainly appears to drag on existence, regardless of all

* Dr. Mason.

future necessities, so that the wants of the present moment be but supplied.

Take his case, such as it will be found in so large a majority of instances that it may be said to be general.

Marriages in this class are certainly contracted at a much earlier period than was formerly customary; hence the probability of either party having amassed any property by saving is greatly diminished. Possessing health and industry, the wages of a married labourer will sustain him in comparative ease and comfort until a rising offspring shall awaken him to a sense of difficulty and embarrassment. No provident anticipation, no prudent self denial, having furnished him with means to provide for this natural consequence of marriage, he now perhaps first submits to privation, and this may be termed the stage of *ignorance*. With an increase of family increases his difficulty, and the necessity of arresting its progress, by the adoption of a new principle of domestic management. But those wants which the produce of his labour cannot now supply, his *credit* with the baker, and the chandler's shop can furnish—this is the stage of *irresolution*. That which he thus procures on credit, is purchased often under incalculable and notorious disadvantages of price, quality, quantity, and season; and thus he rushes on in his career towards pauperism, until credit being extended to the utmost point, the weekly produce of his labour is absorbed by payments in reduction of existing debts, *with permission to contract new ones to an equal amount*. Thus he becomes bound hand and foot as to his dealings. To this consummation of his thraldom succeeds *despair;* and finally he resorts to that fatal and humiliating resource—the *parish!* With his independence he now loses that honest, proud, and manly feeling, which once distinguished the labouring class of England—justifies his conduct by the hacknied sophism of the poor having a right to be maintained by the rich—and the last spark of shame extinguished, he heartily joins in

> "Hang sorrow and drive away care,
> "The parish is bound to find us."

Such is the progress and descent of the labourer to parochial pauperism. Let such as have deliberately viewed the picture, say if it be overcharged. With this view of the subject, it were obvious that mere pecuniary donation, however liberally conferred, could afford no *permanent* relief to the labourer; his habits remaining unchanged, the money in many instances would be injudiciously exhausted, and in others would probably be only applied in the partial liquidation of old shop debts.

To make the labouring class become contributors to a fund, in which they finally should be the sole participators, unquestionably might appear to savour of paradox. It was, however, resolved to make the attempt; and in defiance of the prejudices and objections of the labouring poor, it has been carried into effect with a degree of success exceeding the most sanguine expectations. The society having laid down their system, proceeded to the execution of their plan; and having, with some modifications, continued it from the summer of 1816, I shall state their customary mode of procedure.

Early in the spring, on a day previously announced, the names are registered of such persons of the labouring class as intimate a desire to become contributors to the fund, from which they will be entitled to relief in the following winter season. They are required to state the number of individuals in their families—the articles with which they desire to be supplied from the institution store, whether bread or flour—the quantity of each article absolutely necessary for the proper sustentation of themselves, and families, as well as the quantity of fuel requisite for their comfort; great caution being taken that no individual subscriber shall, during the inclement season, be deprived of a full and perfect supply of these articles; the quantities being calculated for sixteen weeks, the prescribed period in which they are furnished. A classification of the contributors being completed, sixteen tickets are prepared for each subscriber, of which one is to be used weekly in succession during the season. They are allowed the option of four days in the spring, summer, and autumn months, to purchase such number of these sixteen tickets as is convenient to their circumstances; the price of which, and the addition that is made to them, being contained in the following table:

Sum paid for the Tickets by the labouring class, and the sum for which they are received at the institution store.

		Sum paid for the Tickets by the labouring class	s.	d.	Sum for which the Tickets are received at the institution store, in payment of the articles purchased.	s.	d.
Class 1.	(Single people)		0	6 each		1	6
Class 2.	(Two in family)		1	0 each		2	0
Class 3.	(Three in family)		1	3 each		2	4
Class 4.	(Four in family)		1	6 each		2	9
Class 5.	(Five in family)		1	9 each		3	4
Class 6.	(Six in family)		2	0 each		4	0
Class 7.	(Seven in family)		2	2 each		4	6
Class 8.	(Eight in family)		2	3 each		6	0
Class 9.	(Nine in family)		2	4 each		6	6
Class 10.	(Ten in family)		2	5 each		7	0

The difference between the price paid for the tickets, and that at which they are received, forms the additional assistance given by the institution to the subscriber. The gratuitous subscriptions, as well as the contributions of the poor, are always available at the commencement of the season, and immediately applicable as capital, in the purchase of flour and fuel, to be afterwards delivered to the labouring class subscribers, at the market price of the day. In the purchase of these necessaries, it is perhaps superfluous to urge the almost incalculable disadvantage under which the poor man labours—destitute of the means to provide a stock at the proper season, his poverty is intolerably aggravated by the almost invariable advance in prices, during a period, in which, from the usual diminution of employment, his means are the most limited. Hence it is evident, that mere pecuniary aid afforded to the poor during winter, is misapplication of benevolence; for the same amount of money, judiciously applied, at an earlier season of the year, would afford, incontrovertibly, a much more considerable source of relief.

The society, therefore, steadily adhere to their principle, and invariably purchase as opportunity offers, *but for immediate payment only*, quantities of flour and coals adequate to the estimated demand for the ensuing season. The result has fully justified expectation, for taking due advantages of seasons and of markets, the society has been enabled to provide themselves

with these articles on terms so favourable, as to preclude all doubt of ultimately attaining their object, since, after having efficaciously assisted on an average, 200 families in each of the four past winters, the united parishioners', and non-parishioners' available fund already exceeds the important sum of 500*l.*

To secure, however, this essential capital, it became important at the establishment of the institution, that the gratuitous subscriptions should be numerous and considerable. But although the labouring class subscribers are now more numerous than they were, or have ever yet been, the voluntary subscriptions have gradually been diminished in individual amount, till in the present season, persons in the middle class of society contribute no more than 5*s.* each, but which small sum conjunctively with the subscriptions of the higher classes, will be found adequate to all the purposes of the institution.

Much of the success of this scheme has unquestionably depended on the acquirement of competent capital, and I am consequently pleased to find, that at the approach of the next winter, there is every reason to hope, that what with the surplus balance left over from the past year, and the annual subscriptions of the more affluent and poorer classes, the society will be in possession of a fund exceeding 800*l.*! and which sum being judiciously applied in the purchase of the articles previously detailed, will, by its operation and effect, produce a most important relief to the labouring class at that period, without occasioning other, than a most inconsiderable charge to the gratuitous subscribers. Saving and profit, are thus united, in a degree incomparably superior to the principle of saving banks, as respects the working classes, from which the advantage can be but *four per cent.*, while the gains on bread, flour and fuel, are generally of considerable magnitude.

But before I proceed further, it may be necessary to notice certain *doubts* which have been suggested, whether the purchase of flour and fuel by contract for so extensive a body of poor, might not be deemed a species of injustice to the retail trader. The objection is however so futile, that it will be perhaps deemed unworthy of notice. It may, however, be observed, that while in every public institution, military, eleemosynary, and parochial, the system of providing food for numbers by contract is invariably adopted, it were difficult to suggest any plausible reason why pauperism should not be *prevented*, by the means that are recognized as legitimate, when it is unhappily *established*.

Thus by the exercise of a comparatively inconsiderable self denial, the honest and industrious labourer finds himself in a situation, at approach of winter, which affords the certain assurance of support during the customary suspension of agricultural labour.

Take, for instance, a subscriber of the fifth class, who having made payments on sixteen tickets, has laid up a fund of 28*s.*; to this is added a sum, which upon the sixteen tickets, amounts to 1*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.* partly furnished by the gratuitous subscriber, and partly arising from the profit which has been produced by the mode of purchasing the articles, making together an aggregate of 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* equal to 3*s.* 4*d.* per week! This he expends with the society in bread, or flour, and coals, in all, or any of these articles, as he chooses, of the very best quality, at the retail price of the day, precisely such as must be paid at any retail shop. The value of this assistance can only be appreciated by considering, that to subscribe 28*s.* during thirty-six weeks of spring, summer, and autumn, requires a subtraction from the earnings of a labourer in the fifth class, of only 9¼*d.* per week, and for this timely and prudent forbearance, he is rewarded during sixteen weeks of winter, with the return of 3*s.* 4*d.*; a sum equal to what he could expect were he driven to the humiliation of requiring parochial relief! At the return of spring, he resumes his labour, in full possession of his independence, his character free from debt, and untainted by the odium of having been "*upon the parish.*"

Until a capital adequate to the object of the society be established, some extraneous aid from gratuitous subscriptions will continue to be required. But the experience already derived from purchases and sales, furnishes a well grounded hope, that the adventitious aid will ultimately be essential only in seasons of extraordinary dearth or unusual severity. Acting on the principle which has thus been successfully adopted, this institution may be justly deemed to merit the appellation which they have assumed of "Provident," for upon "provident frugality" depends the title of the subscriber to assistance, and upon "provident" application of the fund, depends the power of affording it.

From the statement to which I alluded in the outset of this article, it appears, that during the year 1819, 144 families of parochial poor, and 55 families of non-parishioners, making in the aggregate 199 families, the representatives of upwards of 700 individuals, were contributors to the fund of the institution, and their united subscriptions amounted to 154*l.* The sum which was dispensed among them, by abatement in the price of their necessaries, exceeded 380*l.* leaving these meritorious families a profit of upwards of 226*l.* to reward them for their provident precaution and self denial. The charge created on the fund for this considerable relief, averaged 7½*d.* per week for the entire number of each family, or 10*s.* only for 16 weeks' assistance, during one of the most rigorous and protracted seasons we have hitherto experienced. And so effectual did it prove, that the instances were very rare during that season, in which any subscriber required relief, and that when such application was made, it resulted solely from the utter impossibility of procuring any kind of employment.

As some proof of the salutary impression which has been made on the minds of the poor of that parish, I may be permitted to mention, that of the parochial poor 178 families, and 70 of the non-parishioners, have eagerly become contributors for the present year, and their aggregate subscriptions during the summer and autumn months, are estimated to amount to upwards of 250*l.* towards their own necessities in the next winter season.

Apprehending that I may already have trespassed too far on the space that can be afforded in the limited columns of a journal, I refrain from entering into a minute detail of calcula-

tions which might satisfactorily prove all that has been stated. It is sufficient for me to have shown, that the evils of poverty may not only be alleviated without the mischief and degradation of parochial relief, but that such an alleviation may be effected even by the contributions of the very sufferers?

In the infancy of this establishment there was much to encounter—jealousy, prejudice, and incredulity, all interposed obstacles against success; but conviction of the positive advantages and beneficial tendency of the system, has silenced every doubt; and it is most gratifying to find that the number of applicants for admission as subscribers, in the present year, so vastly exceed the past, independently of very many others who were rejected from causes creditable to the discernment and prudence of the society.

TOLLING OF BELLS.

I called to see my patient at the usual hour; the weather was oppressively warm, the windows and doors were open. She was a very interesting young woman. I had no hope of ever seeing her better; she had begun to realize that her end was approaching. Her mother was fanning her; and attempted, by disguised cheerfulness, to conceal her own dreadful apprehensions.

I observed in my patient a flush, and expression of anxiety and distress, not unlike what I had sometimes before seen in her, but not of so strong a cast. I inquired into her feeling and sensations, gently, and with great caution, lest I should alarm her: she turned her deep blue eyes upon me, and with more energy than I had remarked in her for some time, "Doctor," said she, "if you knew how that *hateful bell* strikes on my poor bewildered brain, you indeed would pity me." Seeming then to try to suppress the tears that were coming, "if," said she, "it had not such excruciating *regularity* of sound, I could bear it better; it strikes, and goes to my heart; and I recover from the misery it inflicts, just in time to spend some dreadful moments in expecting a repetition of my misery from the next succeeding blow. From me, all other sounds are fearfully kept away; but oh! how cruelly does *this one* break on the silence that reigns around me." I replied, that I had often seen, in the course of my practice, like suffering from the same cause; that the subject had been often mentioned to those who had authority in such matters, but still the custom continued.

"To whom," she answered, "can this custom be useful? Is it to mournful friends, who sit in silence and apprehension around the sick; to those who have ceased to hear, forever, as mortals; to those who follow them to the place of the dead; to those who are contending with disease, and who are compelled to think on the chances and changes to which human beings are subject; and especially those of quickened sensibility, in whom susceptibility becomes at length incorporated with, and inseparable from, their disease?"

Perceiving how much her attempt to express herself increased the flush of her face and agitated her frame, and fearing the consequences of supervening debility, I told her that I would endeavour to have this evil suppressed by a petition of the inhabitants, or by what other means I could. She then turned her glistening eyes on her mother, who was hiding her emotions in her covered face—"My mother!" said she, "let no bell sound for me. Take me silently and tenderly to the tomb. Let not the few remaining hours of the declining or desponding sick be shortened or disturbed, because my days are numbered."

I have stood at the bed of the sick and the dying, I know not how often; but I came away now with a new impression.—*It seemed to me that the tolling of bells is a sort of homicide:* if it shortens the life of any human being *a moment*, it is killing; else *murder* may have an excuse in this, that the party destroyed would at some time have died. I remembered to have seen a comparison of degrees of cruelty in different modes of torture; and among them all it was said, that the most cruel is that in which the victim is fixed, so that a large drop of water could fall, *with undeviating regularity*, on the top of the head. I believe that there is no custom, among civilized people, so useless for any purpose, and so distressing in many relations, as that of which my poor patient so feelingly complained. The next day she was wrapped in her shroud—*but no bell announced her transit to the grave.*

[*Bost. D. Adv.*

FROM A LATE LONDON PAPER.

THE PLAGUE OF AFRICA.

Various opinions having been propagated respecting the plague, as being contagious or noncontagious, and this important question having engaged much time of the committee of the House of Commons, it becomes at this period peculiarly interesting to know the disease, when it is spreading insidiously throughout the provinces of West and South Barbary; when it has already reached Morocco, the city of which Mogadore is the port; when the communi-

cation is open between Mogadore and Morocco, and when it has already raised its hydra head in the port of Saffy and in the province of Abda, distant only 60 miles from Mogadore, the only port in the empire of Morocco which maintains an uninterrupted commerce with London; and when in the common course of events, it is to be presumed that the next ships that shall arrive here from Mogadore may bring foul bills of health:—all this being premised, it cannot be now irrelevant to state a few facts respecting the African plague, by way of precaution against its introduction into this country.

That it is contagious there can be no doubt; and I think the following facts will prove it, in opposition to the opinion of some learned theorists on the subject:

In the great plague of Moscow, in 1771, which destroyed nearly 60,000 persons, Dr. de Mærtens, merely by strict attention to nonintercourse, preserved the foundling hospital of that city from the slightest infection. This institution contained one thousand persons; yet not one of them died, although for many months thousands were dying in the city around it. Dr. Mærten's words are worthy of attention: "Solo ægrorum et rerum infectarum contactu communicabatur, atque atmosphera contagium non spargebat, sed sanissima semper fuit." (See Hist. Pest. Moscuens.) Dr. Orræus, physician to the empress Catherine, agrees in opinion with Dr. Mærtens.

Dr. Russell, who practised forty years at Aleppo, was in the habit of prescribing daily to crowds of people infected with this disease. He saw them from a chamber window, and used no kind of precaution beyond avoiding contact with their persons and clothes, or inhalation by the breath of the vapour from their bodies; and he lays it down as the result of his long experience, that he never knew an instance of a secluded family becoming infected, without being able to trace the misfortune to some accidental or unavoidable violation of the rules of confinement.

Mr. Papon, in the History of Provence, relates that the plague was introduced from Marseilles in 1720, into the town of Aix. The governor of the latter place put all the inhabitants under quarantine in their houses, and the disease soon disappeared. The restrictions were taken off somewhat prematurely, and the disease broke out anew, but was finally extinguished by a repetition and a more steady prosecution of the like means.

We have the strongest evidence to the same effect in Jackson's account of Morocco. This gentleman, in an able description of the dreadful contagion which wasted that empire in 1799, and carried off no less than 124,500 souls, shows in the most convincing manner, that the disease was strictly contagious. One fact was very decisive, whilst the disease was raging at Mogadore, the small village of Diabet, only two miles to the southeast, remained for thirty-eight days uninfected; at last promiscuous intercourse conveyed the poison, and this small place, out of a population of 133, lost in the short space of 21 days, 100 persons by this fell scourge.

If any one thing could prove more forcibly than another that the disease is the product of personal contact, and not of any atmospherical contamination, it is the fact stated by Mr. Jackson, that instead of shutting himself up in his house like other Europeans, he rode out occasionally for exercise, and exposed himself freely to the air, still however avoiding suspicious communication. He had a separation of three feet wide made across the gallery of his house, between the kitchen and the dining parlour. From this place of separation he took the dishes with his own hands, and after meals returned them to the same spot, thus suffering none of his servants to come near him. He adopted similar precautions in his counting-house, to prevent the near approach of persons who might call on business, and made a practice of never receiving money but through vinegar. He himself escaped the plague, although he informs us his cook died of it. What augments the value of Mr. Jackson's testimony is, that not being a medical man, he cannot be suspected of any theoretical bias whatever.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of the advice of some members

of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society, we shall occasionally publish an extract from the former volumes of transactions. The following piece (with several others which shall be published) has been recommended to us.

ON PEACH TREES.

By Joseph Cooper, of New Jersey.

Read January 14th, 1806.

In looking over an almanac* for the present year, I observed a piece giving information, that peach trees had been preserved in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, by removing the earth from the roots, after the first hard frost, in the fall, and returning it again in the spring, and oiling the body three or four feet from the ground, with common lamp oil.

The author likewise observes, that peach trees that stand in hedge rows and thickets, thrive better than others in cleared ground, which had suggested the idea, of defending the body of the tree, by wisps of straw, to prevent the attack of insects.

I take the liberty to make some observations on the piece alluded to.

In the first place, I think the taking the earth from the roots of peach trees, in the fall, dangerous, as I tried that method in the fall of 1779; the succeeding winter proved very severe, as to frost, and but little snow; the consequence was, the loss of every tree so treated, and their worms not injured. On examining the trees in the spring, I found worms abundant as usual, and the effect the removing the earth had on them, was, causing them to injure the tree more, by descending the roots, as the cold came on; they returned to the surface as the weather warmed, and in picking them out, I found the bark dead, up to the place above whence the earth had been removed, as if a fire had been made round the tree, and the top as fresh as usual; it however died, with the approach of warm weather. The observation, that peach trees flourish in hedge rows, &c. I know is accurate; they also flourish in most places where the body is shaded; this I attribute to their being preserved from the effects of the sudden transitions, from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, which I apprehend are more destructive to peach and cherry trees, than insects, as I have had hundreds of fine trees to perish in one summer, after an irregular winter, without being in the least injured by worms.

Among many reasons for the opinion, that irregular winters are destructive to peach trees, one is, that from good authority, said trees live in Cape May county in this state, to the age of 30 or 40 years; an age, which I attribute to situation, the county being half surrounded by the waters of the Atlantic ocean and Delaware bay; and in the direction of the winds, that cause the warm spells here in winter, and which have not the same effect there, coming as they do, so immediately off those large waters; a proof of this is, that vegetation is generally two weeks later there than here, though so far to the southward.

From many observations and experiments, I have found that the worm most destructive to peach trees, begins to change to a *chrysalis* about the first of July, and remains in that state about two weeks, when they come out a wasp, and proceed to couple and lay their eggs near the roots of the trees, or in wounds in any other part; but do little injury, except in or near the roots, as, if attended to, the issuing of the gum will show their seat, and they are easily picked out; but their principal object is the root, the bark being softer there than on the body, and the rapid growth of the trunk near the root, at the time of the wasps depositing their eggs, causes a number of small rents in the bark, which give worms an easy entrance. I have observed that trees in a declining state, are more favourable to the increase of peach worms than those of a luxuriant growth, as the latter discharge so much gum from the wounds, as to cause the death of the insect, and the former will bring them into the wasp state a month sooner; for which reason I examine the peach trees carefully every spring, and those that are in such a declining state as to render them unprofitable, I hitch a team to, and draw up by the roots, as the most certain mode to destroy all the worms they may contain.

The best method I have yet discovered, to prevent injury from the worms, is to examine the trees carefully in the spring and take out the worms; repeat the operation about 1st July, and hill up the earth round the trees eight or ten inches: in October, remove the earth, examine as before, then renew the hill, which leave, till the spring examination. By continuing this process annually, I am confident that not more than one of my peach trees has been killed by the worms, for twenty that have died in consequence of irregular winters: and as I have observed the fluctuating state of the weather in winter, constantly to increase for more than fifty years, I conceive it must proceed from some certain cause, which I apprehend to be the improvement

* Published by Kimber, Conrad, and Co.

of the country, every cleared field operating, when free of snow, as a reflector of the rays of the sun. That the clearing of the country is at least in part the cause of our variable winters, is rendered in some measure probable by a fact communicated to me, viz. that in the thinly settled parts of the country, peach trees flourish as well as they did formerly in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia: therefore it seems advisable to endeavour to find out some method to defend tender fruit trees from the effects of fluctuating winters; I can think of no better method to succeed, than binding straw round the body or trunk of the trees, that part appearing to be the seat of the disease.

CULTIVATION OF MADDER.

TO THE EDITORS.

Philadelphia, Dec. 24, 1812.

The editors of the National Intelligencer are desirous to receive information of the mode of cultivating the madder. The following account was obtained from a person in Asia Minor, who resided in the district of country where it grows abundantly, and who was employed in cultivating it.

"It grows most abundantly three, four, or five day's journey from Smyrna (say 120 miles) to the northward. It requires a rich and rather a moist soil. It must be well ploughed before the seed be sown, which is done in the same manner as wheat. The sowing season is from the middle of March to the middle of April. In this climate, for the sake of experiment, the time of sowing might be a little varied. The first year its appearance resembles grass; it will grow to the height of one foot, and during the arid months of June and July it dries up. The second year it grows to the height of nearly two feet, and produces a flower and seed like a pepper corn. In June and July it again dries up, and is cut and used as litter for cattle. The third year it grows three feet in height, and its leaves resemble those of the myrtle. It produces even at this age a flower and seed, and then dries up, and is also used for food and litter for cattle. The fourth year it grows but little higher than the third, and is thought to have attained its full height. After the plant has flourished, dried up and been cut, the roots are taken from the earth in the months of July and August. People who are rich leave them in the ground five, six, or seven years, and it is calculated that the root penetrates deeper into the earth every year, and become 10 per cent. better in quality, the dye being better and stronger the older the root is.

"If the root be left in the earth longer than ten years, it runs into wood, which injures rather than improves the quality. When the root is taken from the earth, it must be left to dry about fifteen days in the sun, and freed from the earth adhering to it. The cleaner the root the better and clearer the dye. The seed of the first and second year is the best for sowing. If the ground be very moist, it had better be planted in rows, the mode adopted in Holland." [*Am. D. Adv.*

Political Economy.

Fredericksburgh, (Va.) August 19.

At a united meeting of farmers and merchants interested in the proposed alteration of the tariff on importations, at the town hall in this place, on the 12th instant, the following memorial to Congress was presented and read by colonel John Taylor, of Caroline, and unanimously adopted by the meeting.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled,

THE MEMORIAL

Of the Merchants, Agriculturists and others, of the Town of Fredericksburgh and adjacent Country,

RESPECTFULLY SHOWETH—

That being convinced that the protecting duty system has been and would continue to be pernicious to the United States, your memorialists respectfully submit to the consideration of your honourable body the following observations in relation to it.

Whether a freedom of exchanges or commercial restrictions, will most advance the prosperity of nations; whether an erroneous policy by one nation, requires an erroneous policy by another; whether economy or avarice suggests the idea of transferring capital from many occupations to one; whether justice decides that a portion of the labour of the poor ought to be appropriated by laws to the use of the rich; whether the limited powers over persons and property, delegated to the federal government, embrace the internal power of regulating the interests of manufacturers and agriculturists; and whether such a construction of the federal constitution would not include an internal power over all the interests of the manufacturers, the restrictions designed to establish a division of powers between the federal and state governments—are questions too extensive for the limits of a memorial, but sufficiently important to be suggested to the wisdom of Congress.

The present tariff was modelled by the mingled considerations of raising revenue, and encouraging manufactures. The revenue it produces, goes into the public treasury; and the bounties it bestows, into the pockets of capitalist manufacturers. Either as public revenue or

private bounties, it is a tax upon the national ability. The Congress which imposed the tax, undoubtedly estimated this ability; but since it was imposed, one half the national ability to pay taxes has been destroyed by the doubled value of money, and a reduction to the same amount in the value of products and property. Therefore the burden of taxation has been doubled, by circumstances without the agency of legislation, and if one half the duties were taken off, it would require the profits of as much capital to pay the other half, as sufficed to pay the whole when the duties were inflicted. One effect of this diminution in the ability to pay must be a diminution of revenue; because if the whole duty is continued, it will compel the payers to retrench their consumptions; and the value of the bounties bestowed upon manufacturers, being doubled by the doubled value of money, they would, under the present tariff, receive a pecuniary encouragement worth twice as much as that which was originally bestowed. If, therefore, one half of the duties imposed by the existing tariff were taken off, the other half would constitute the same real burden upon the nation, and the same real bounty to manufacturers, intended to be established by the representatives of the people.

To this eventual augmentation of taxation, without the concurrence of Congress, the public distress is owing in a great degree; and the question is, whether the evils inflicted by unforeseen circumstances, ought to be alleviated or increased by the representatives of the United States. In fact, whether the bounty to manufacturers ought to be quadrupled by law, because it has been doubled without law.

The protecting duty system, in its existing degree, has been already felt by the people and by the treasury. By diminishing the importation of commodities, it has already chilled commerce, and reduced the prices of our native productions. Commodities are a universal currency; their plenty or scarcity will therefore have the same influence upon prices, as the plenty or scarcity of money. An enhancement of home commodities, by the abundance of foreign commodities or currency brought to purchase them, is both a reimbursement for the consumption of these foreign commodities, and also furnishes a fund for revenue; whereas the expulsion of this currency diminishes the price of home commodities, deprives the people of many enjoyments arising from consumption, and lessens the means for the payment of taxes.

The enjoyments of consumption are the food of industry; diminish them, and it flags; leave them free, and it is invigorated; and this invigoration is a resource so ample for meeting the expense of an increased consumption, that every nation possessing it, will have the advantage in commercial competitions over those which do not. In struggles for wealth, industry will gain the victory; and a relaxation of its sinews, is like carrying on a war without ammunition.

True economy consists in a free employment of their own capital by occupations, as the best mode of making it productive; false economy, in legislative coercions of capital in other channels, because it cannot be employed with the same skill in new, as in habitual occupations. Drive a merchant to the plough, or a ploughman to the counting-house, and the unskilfulness of both will cause mutual sloth, vexation and misfortune; and by diminishing a resource to meet the expense of consumption, contained in the knowledge and skill of habitual occupations, diminish also the public prosperity.

Legal dislocations of capital, besides producing the losses sustained by driving individuals from one occupation to another, are, moreover, universally the mode resorted to for imposing burdens on a great majority of nations, to foster some exclusive interest. They constitute an eleemosynary system for enforcing the poor to give alms to the rich, and in every form are the elements by which free governments are made oppressive.

The mercantile, naval, and agricultural occupations, are all discouraged by restrictions upon commerce, and must dwindle or flourish in conjunction. The agricultural supplies the basis of commerce: the mercantile imports the commodities which increase the value of those for exportation; and both supply the freights and wages which nurture the naval occupation, rear seamen, and provide the means for maritime defence. In the united prosperity of these occupations consists national prosperity itself; and their free efforts are an ample equivalent for the expense of consumption.

Re-exportations ought not to be forgotten. They extend commerce, increase seamen and shipping, and produce a mercantile profit. Single towns have often acquired opulence by being depots of foreign manufactures, and the more prosperous this branch of commerce is, the more the capital of every community is augmented. Mercantile intelligence, profiting by commercial fluctuations and circumstances, frequently derives profit from circulations, exchanges, and sometimes can undersell the fabricators themselves. It is insufficient to urge, that prohibitory or protecting duties will not destroy this branch of our commerce, because they are not paid on the exported commodities. The fact is, that no considerable surplus of these commodities are ever imported, except from the inducement of a double market; that they are invited by freedom of trade, and repelled by local restrictions; and that the freer the port, the more extensive and profitable this branch of commerce will become.

A free commerce is like a free government. Either isolated amidst commercial restrictions or political oppressions, flourishes beyond its neighbours by forbearing to imitate their errors. The Hanse Towns at one period almost absorbed the trade and wealth of Europe, because commerce was every where else subjugated to prohibitions and restrictions.

From all these sources of national wealth, the protecting duty system makes deductions which fall chiefly upon the poor, because the coarse and necessary articles of domestic manufacture, are consumed principally by them. But it is said that the tax thus inflicted upon the poor of all other occupations, goes to the relief of poor manufacturers. The fact would not be a justification of the policy; but even that is denied. The price of labour is regulated by circumstances which bounties cannot control. If a bounty was given to seamen navigating mercantile vessels, their employers would compute the

bounty as a portion of the wages, and continue to regulate them by a comparison with the price of labour in other occupations. In like manner, a bounty to the workmen or navigators of manufactories, must settle in the pockets of their employers, even if it was paid to the workmen themselves; but when it is attached to the goods sold by their employers, the chance of the workmen to receive any portion of it is so very feeble, that no symptoms of such an effect has ever been observed in England. And thus the protecting duty system imposes a tax upon the poor of all other occupations, which will be received by the rich of the manufacturing occupation.

It has been supposed that in a home trade between manufacturers and agriculturists, two capitals are retained—whereas one is exempted by the purchase of foreign manufactures. But the truth of this idea is also denied. No capital is lost by the purchase of manufactures; it is only exchanged, and both parties may profit by the exchange. Without exchanges, consumable capital can never be increased—but it must be diminished for the same reasons that an individual who should only use what he fabricates, would possess less consumable capital, than if he avails himself of beneficial exchanges. Exchanges consist of consumable articles. If consumption destroys what we receive, it destroys also what we pay. No permanent capital is produced either by commerce or manufactures, except by causing an improvement of land and buildings. Neither commerce nor manufacturing can create and embalm a capital against consumption. Wealth in consumable capital is constituted by the plenty of commodities—poverty, by their scarcity. Both merchants and capitalists offer to supply the community with consumable capital. Which is best, a small annual consumable capital or a large one? The large one can feed all our wants, encourage industry in all its branches, enhance all our commodities, and spare annually a surplus to meet the expenses of government. The small consumable capital can feed but a few of our wants, discourages industry in all its branches but one, depreciates all our commodities, and can spare nothing for government. By supposing that the little consumable capital could utterly exclude the great one, and contemplating the protecting duty policy in its utmost success, exactly as we have felt it occasionally in the cases of wars and embargoes, we may calculate its gradations. A large consumable capital is so essentially connected with national wealth, that governments, wherever it exists, may afford to be extravagant —but wherever the small one only exists, which manufactures without commerce can produce, they must be frugal. The difference lies between making a mercantile profit by foreign exchanges, and making no such profit. A frugal government, united with a free commerce, by leaving to the nation that portion of consumable capital, which oppressive governments take from it to pamper exclusive privileges, would probably pursue the most effectual policy for advancing the wealth, comfort and happiness of the people. A great annual consumable capital is so universally agreed to be among the good things of this world, that it is the very thing which all exclusive interests are in pursuit of. The protecting duty system proposes to deprive the community of a great mass of this species of wealth, the only kind really valuable to man; and to give it in return a support of the same species, of an inferior amount, saddled with a tax for the benefit of a few rich men, and attended with a necessity of resorting to some new mode of taxation for the support of government.

It has been fairly tried, by a gradual progress for thirty years; and having increased public expenses, exhausted the treasury in time of peace, contributed to a ruinous reduction in the prices of our commodities, and caused in no small degree, the general distress—another dose of the drug, which has produced such consummations, is proposed. Might it not be wiser to give a short trial to the rival policy, by repealing the present tariff, imposing duties exclusively with an eye to revenue, and re-establishing the freedom of commerce, than to persevere any longer? If one half the duties were taken off, it is probable that the revenue would not be diminished, as consumable capital might be doubled, and an increase of value by an increase of currency brought to purchase our commodities, might recover and establish the fact, that the greater are our comforts and enjoyments, the easier we can pay our taxes.

We think it a question between the nourishment of a monopoly by a tax to enrich the rich, and the nourishment of all useful occupations, by equal laws, in which a very few individuals occupy one interest, and all the rest of the community, with the government itself, another; and therefore we respectfully submit these remarks to the wisdom of Congress, with a conviction that the subject will receive the attention which its importance requires, and that the distresses under which we are labouring will not be aggravated.

And your memorialists, as in duty bound, will ever pray, &c.

PROTECT THE NATIONAL INDUSTRY.

The following communication from the New York Evening Post, though in its general views very sound, is liable to objection when it states, that the tendency of high duties on foreign manufactures, is to *enrich* manufacturers in this country; to enable them "to secure the independence of their own fortunes." When a violent change is made in the direction of capital, those who from accidental circumstances are best prepared to turn their capital into the new channels, will have some advantage over others, but it will be of very short duration. Those who have erected machinery and are ready for manufacturing the goods proposed to be excluded or enhanced in price, will undoubtedly reap the first fruits. Those whose capital is unemployed, will come next, and they will be followed by all the capital that can find greater profit in manufactures than in its

present occupation. This will reduce the profits of manufacturers to a level with those of other employments. The profits of every one will be lower than they now are, for the same capital will exist in the country, and there will be fewer modes of employing it. If, however, the restrictive system should be carried so far as very much to reduce the rate of profits here, our capital will go elsewhere to find more advantageous employment, and we shall then experience a serious evil. The advocates for a forcible establishment of manutures, (or any other mode of employing capital and industry,) are not aware of the evils that their success would bring upon the country.

If no capital but that at present employed in manufactures could be changed to that use, it would be true that the tendency of the measures recommended by manufacturers is to enrich themselves. The *owners of land* in England, have profited by the corn laws there, because the *supply of land* is limited. Farmers derive no benefit from them, for the rent is raised in proportion to the additional price of corn.

FROM THE NEW YORK EVENING POST.

Mr. Coleman—At the hazard of being discredited in your eyes, if you should ever chance to know me under any other than my assumed name, I assert that I am neither a merchant nor a manufacturer, and that I have not, nor has any connexion of mine, to my knowledge, any interest in the relative success of trade or manufactures, save as an American citizen, and a friend to our common country. I have, therefore, a right to express the disgust which I have felt at the loud and importunate claims which have been set up to exclusive patriotism by a set of men, the tendency of whose measures (whatever their designs may be) is to enrich themselves *at the expense of the country*. Yes, sir, when we hear so much of the necessity and duty of "protecting the national industry," and securing the national independence, by imposing high duties upon articles imported, for domestic consumption, the real object of these eloquent patriots is to be relieved from the evils of their indiscreet speculations, to obtain an extravagant reward for their *own industry*, and to secure the *independence of their own fortunes*, by imposing burdens upon the property and the industry of the rest of their fellow citizens, who have as good a right to a fair chance to get a living in these hard times, as the most patriotic manufacturer of them all.

"Protect the national industry," says Mr. Baldwin, who, I believe, lives in the largest inland manufacturing town in the United States; "protect the national industry and the national independence," says the National Society, composed of manufacturers and their friends and connexions, and so indeed say we, and so says every true American. But we would state for the information of Mr. Baldwin and his National Society, a circumstance to which they seem not to have averted: viz, that this country is not entirely peopled by cotton or woollen factory men, and that all its wealth is not vested in stock of that description. Show us that any measures you can devise will have a favourable effect upon national industry and we will readily contribute our efforts for their adoption: but it must be the industry of the *whole* nation, and not a tax upon the industry of the whole for the benefit of a few monopolists. "Protect the national industry." Aye, we will do so—and more—we will protect the *fruits* of that industry, and thereby secure to each man the benefit of laying out the little money he has been able to save or earn in these pinching times to the best advantage. One benefit, and perhaps the only one resulting from the present depression of affairs, is the unusual cheapness of commodities. This renders tolerable a pressure which else could not be borne, and this alleviation of our hard lot, gentlemen, so please you, we wish to retain. We can scarcely earn enough now to obtain the necessaries of life, and those comforts which habit has rendered necessary, cheap as they are, and we are not willing to tax our industry for your benefit, to make them dearer. We really cannot afford to pay an additional shilling per yard for the cotton for our shirts, nor an additional dollar for the cloth for our coats. But you say that you are far from wishing this—that you only mean to give domestic a preference over foreign manufactures, and not to impose an additional burden upon consumers. This is smooth and kind language, but let us understand what you really mean. To simplify the whole question, let us select the two most important items.

Why do you wish to increase the duties on cotton and woollen cloth to 33 1-3d per cent.? Tell the truth distinctly and without a flourish of patriotic profession. Is it not to enable you to sell your cotton and woollen goods for a better price? If you don't want this, what do you want? and if you get a higher price, must not we, the consumers, the rest of the nation, pay it?

This you must allow, but this, you say, is not your motive, your object is to render your country independent, by removing her dependence upon foreign supplies. That patriotism which leads directly and exclusively to enrich the patriot at the expense of the country is a little suspicious—but to return to the argument—Is not the object to be obtained (viewing the subject in this light) to secure ourselves as much as possible from any undue influence or control of foreign nations, and to get as much influence or control over them, as we can by fair means?

Now, we ask, how does the case stand in common life, and which has the greatest influence and power of coercion over the other, the employer and consumer, or the labourer dependent upon his continued occupation for his daily bread? The case cannot be put more strongly than it exists between us and Great Britain. She has an immense number of labourers, brought up to one precise mode of employment, which they cannot change, and who must either obtain employment, be starved, or fed on charity, and who are continually upon the verge of such distress and disorder as to endanger the safety of the country. America, thanks to Divine Providence, and our want of the English system of

protecting the national industry, is yet in a situation very different from this—we have yet nothing like her superabundance of distressed and turbulent labourers, and we depend on her for nothing which we cannot get elsewhere, or make ourselves, though at a dearer rate. In this state of things, which nation has the strongest hold upon the other?

Let it be understood that we are no advocates for dependence upon any foreign nation for any thing necessary either for subsistence or defence. But it is not pretended that we are so. We can make and fit out ships, appoint armies, and feed our own population. The question is whether we will not get our comforts and indulgences at as cheap a rate as possible.

But, says Mr. Baldwin and his co-patriots, all nations have made laws to protect their own industry, and shall we not profit by their wisdom. Alas! alas! when will nations be the better for experience. It is indeed true, that all nations have dealt lavishly in legislative enactments and compulsory provisions, to encourage and protect what they thought desirable. For a long series of centuries they *protected* religion by their laws, and the consequence was that hypocrisy, ignorance and abject superstition took the place of religious knowledge. Spain protected her wealth by laws against free trade and the exportation of specie, and she became poor and miserable. England protected her agriculture by prohibiting the importation of corn, and the consequence is that her poor labourers pay nearly twice as much for their bread as the labourers of any other country. Immense capital has been applied to the cultivation of poor soils, which nothing but the artificial prices occasioned by the restrictive laws could have subjected to the plough. Now these restrictive laws must be relaxed or the labourers will starve; and when they are relaxed the agriculturists must suffer. Now, even now, the agriculture of England is embarrassed.

The tax on woollens and cottons is now 25 per cent. Add to this the charges of freight and insurance in crossing the ocean twice, the commissions and profits of the merchants and factors on both sides of the water, and the tax of six pence sterling on every pound of wool, and six per cent. on the value upon cotton now imposed by the British government, together with all contingent expenses, and it will easily be perceived that our manufacturers have at least the advantage of 50 per cent. or one half over the English. In the name of all that is modest and reasonable, is not this enough? If after all this the English labourers still get a portion of our employment, it is simply because they are compelled to live poor and work hard to an extent to which no American will submit.

I am no believer in the exclusive claims of our manufacturers to a patriotic character, or to the favouritism of government. I believe that they established their manufactures for the same reason that merchants plan voyages and import goods, viz. to make money, and for no other reason. If the times have turned against them, I regret it, but am not willing to take their speculations off their hands, or to be taxed to support them. Still I wish them well, and it is partly because I do wish them well, that I hope their present clamours will be disregarded, and their efforts to burden the rest of their fellow citizens defeated. If they are now gratified, the present establishments will be supported and continued, and new ones will go into operation. This will increase their numbers, their confidence, and their claims; they will ask for *more* protection and encouragement, and will probably obtain it; but finally the delusion will pass off; common sense and sound politics will prevail; the duties will be repealed—and as a revulsion usually goes back beyond the starting point, they will, probably, be made even lower than they now are; for there may arise such a thing as an anti-manufacturing party, and this party may be as unreasonable as its opponents. When this reduction shall come, and come it will, the greater the capital invested in these establishments, and the greater the number of persons employed by them, the greater the distress. None understand this better than the most sagacious and respectable of the manufacturers themselves. It is well known that some of these have incurred great odium among their brethren, by refusing to join in the petition for increased patronage. They frankly admit that government has done enough, and they are doing well enough, and they neither ask nor desire more. It is matter of regret, but it is inevitable, that some establishments, built at an enormous expense, and now in the hands of persons without capital, without skill, and in embarrassed circumstances—it is, I say, matter of regret, but inevitable, that some of these should languish and some become extinct. It would be unjust and ruinous to tax the country highly enough to support them. In this way the evil will cure itself, and in this way only can it be cured. A great deal has already been effected. There has been a great revival of occupation, and profitable occupation, for the factories, and every thing will go well if the extravagant pretensions now advanced are withdrawn, and industry and frugality take the place of unfounded clamour and party turbulence.

I have been seduced into a greater length of remark than I had intended. My intentions in taking up my pen was simply to express my disapprobation of the confederacy which seems now to be forming, and especially of the avowed design to elect none to the national legislature but such as are subservient to the selfish views of that confederacy. Be assured, gentlemen, you will in the end only make bad worse.

I may be induced upon some future occasion to add a word upon this subject, and in the mean time, shall take the liberty, notwithstanding the manufacturing monopoly of the term, to subscribe myself

AN AMERICAN PATRIOT.

Literature and Science.

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

LITERARY NOTICES.

There is no literary journal in this country in which we take a more lively interest than the "Western Review," published at Lexington, Kentucky. Few persons, perhaps, on this side of the mountains, are aware even of its exist-

ence; and very few, we believe, of its strong claims to attention. It is not only an object of curiosity as a thriving product of a soil which might appear as yet incapable of supporting it, but it is a source of valuable instruction conveyed in a sensible, happy manner. The editorial articles particularly, of this Review, display considerable powers of composition; habits of philosophical research and reflection; and a manly candour and independence of spirit. Its main objects are announced to be, to develop the natural history of the western states; to improve their literary taste, and convey to them literary intelligence. Of its success in accomplishing the second of these objects, we have no doubt, if it continue to furnish samples of as good writing and just analysis as we have remarked in several of the numbers. Besides developing the natural history of the western states, it has contributed some remarkable details and anecdotes to the stock of their civil and military annals. The adventures of the early settlers with the Indians, which have appeared in it as communications, and have been copied into many of the daily papers, may be considered, if full faith can be yielded to them, as proper, piquant ingredients for history. But we are inclined to suspect these narratives of exaggeration. Brave and adroit as were the heroes of them, they were not less fond of the reputation of bravery and address, and would insensibly complicate the circumstances, and heighten the complexion of their exploits.

It might be supposed that this Western Review, ably conducted as it is, and apparently free from sectarian and party bias, would conciliate universal favour, at least in the state in which it is published. This, however, is not the case. We perceive that very elaborate attempts to discredit and stifle it are made in two of the Lexington papers. The western public can, we trust, readily distinguish the illiberality and evil tendency of such hostilities, which take their rise, no doubt, either in a paltry jealousy or in personal or political rancour.

We have examined the three last numbers of the "New York Literary Journal and Belles Lettres Repository." It is published monthly and printed in a very handsome manner. The original matter does not constitute the largest portion of its contents, but what there is shows that it is not without a solid reliance as to that particular. The borrowed pieces appear to us to be judiciously chosen. We should rejoice to see the essays extracted from the London Monthly Magazine, which treat of the genius and tendency of the poetry of Byron and Moore, widely spread throughout the United States. Those poets are the chief corrupters of the present world of refined English readers: no other living writers of celebrity have ventured upon pictures so licentious, and principles so impious and malignant. Their genius gives attraction and vogue to that which, without such aid, would be spurned by all who could wish to preserve a character for delicacy of sentiment and Christian rectitude.

A bookseller of New Haven has republished from the last London edition, *Jamieson's Grammar of Rhetoric and Polite Literature.* This is the best manual on the subjects of which it treats, with which we are acquainted. Having had occasion to read it some months ago, we would express our entire concurrence in the opinion of the professor of rhetoric and oratory at Yale College, who says of it—"for fulness of valuable matter and clearness of arrangement, it is preferable to an elementary treatise, for the use of the younger student."

Galvanism.—Dr Hare, professor of chemistry in the medical department of the university of Pennsylvania, has published (in a paper to be found in the *Annals of Philosophy*, xiv. 176.) a theory of galvanism differing considerably from all those hitherto started. According to him, the galvanic fluid is a compound of caloric and electricity. The electricity is increased by the number of pairs of plates, and when this number is very great, as in Deluc's column, the calorific effects become evanescent. The caloric is evolved by the increase of the surface, and he has shown that it may be very intense when only a single pair of plates, or what is equivalent to it, is used. He has given us the drawing of a galvanic battery constructed on this principle, which produces intense ignition without any electrical phenomena.

As I have not yet had leisure to study the phenomena exhibited by this new modification of the galvanic battery, I should consider it as improper to make any remarks on Dr. Hare's ingenious hypothesis at present. What I have to say on the subject, therefore, I shall reserve for another opportunity.—*Dr. Thomson.*

Literary Notice.—The publisher of the American Journal of Science and the Arts, is authorized by professor Silliman to say, that the second number of vol. ii. will appear in all September. This number will contain as much or more matter than No. I. and will complete the volume. Patrons of the Journal of Science are respectfully informed, that the present volume is published in two numbers only, to gain time, which had been lost by the late embarrassment in the publication, and that for the year 1821, the numbers will appear as nearly quarterly as circumstances will permit.

It is yet a matter of experiment, whether this valuable work shall find sufficient patronage in the United States to sustain it. The literary and scientific public are already informed that the editor has assumed the responsibility of the publication, and although he may for a year or two consent to labour without compensation, it cannot be supposed that he will devote his services for a great length of time, to an object which will afford no adequate remuneration. Not a word need be said of the *merits* of the Journal of Science; they are abundantly known and acknowledged, to induce all confidence which can have any influence in procuring it support. We trust that gentlemen of science, and of literary taste, will give it a prompt and extensive patronage, which shall do equal honour to the merits of the work, to the talents and industry of the editor, and to the literary character of our country. [*Conn. Journal.*

Professor Silliman is about to publish a volume of his travels in Canada.

The German Correspondent is about to be published monthly.

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

A few remarks on the standards of weights and measures may not, perhaps, be deemed unseasonable; as this subject seems now, very deservedly, to excite a good deal of public attention.

By a *standard* of weights and measures, is understood one, to which those of any country, or of all countries, may be compared, and conformed, and their agreement or relative values ascertained.

These standards may be either *arbitrary*, as is the case in England with the standard foot, pound, &c. deposited in the Tower and Exchequer, and from which, as originals, all the weights and measures of the kingdom and its dependencies, as also those of the United States, are regulated; or they may be *natural*, as is the case in France; where the length of a given arc of the meridian, or a determinate proportional part thereof, measured on the surface of the earth, is their standard of linear measure, and also, in fact, of their weights, and measures of surface and capacity. One ten-millionth part of a quadrant of the meridian [the distance from the equator to the north pole] is their *metre*, estimated at 39.371 English inches: the *arc*, which is the square of a deca-metre [100 square metres] is their element of superficial measure: the *stere*, which is the cube of a metre, is their element of solid measure: the *litre*, which is the cube of a deci-metre, [*i. e.* of the tenth part of a metre] is their element of all measures of capacity: and the *gramme*, which is the weight of a cubic centi-metre [*i. e.* of the 100th part of a metre] of pure water at its greatest density —42° Fahr. is the element of all their weights.

Another natural standard of measure, was proposed by Mr. Jefferson, while secretary of state, in 1792, but never finally acted upon; namely, the length of a cylindrical rod or pendulum, oscillating seconds, in a given latitude, with the details of its application.

On each of these standards I shall submit a few observations, chiefly with relation to the United States.

1. *On the Arbitrary Standards.*

These, perhaps, for all practical purposes, in the United States, might have the preference; and as England is the principal country with which we carry on commerce, and as her weights and measures are the only ones which we have ever used, Congress would find no difficulty, on giving these a legal sanction, to ensure their prompt and universal adoption.* If this regulation should take place, there ought, no doubt, to be introduced sundry modifications, which would greatly facilitate the business of commerce, as well as that of the counting-house. For instance—there ought to be but one unit of linear measure, the English foot,—which, indeed, is at present the case, though with different multiples and parts; one unit of weight—the avoirdupois pound—this being the only weight which is used in buying and selling; one measure of capacity, formed, perhaps, from the weight of a given volume of pure water: and let the multiples and fractions of these units, respectively, be expressed decimally; or, if in some instances thought more convenient, by small multipliers and divisors, forming doubles, trebles, quadruples, halves, thirds, quarters, &c.

2. *On the Natural Standard of France.*

This, it is obvious, differs, in its practical application, in no respect from a mere arbitrary standard; since it cannot be supposed that the United States, or any other country, would actually measure an arc of the meridian, even a single degree, (which the editor of the Aurora deems sufficient,) for the purpose of obtaining a true French metre, &c. And it may not be amiss just to glance at one or two sources of unavoidable error, if this attempt should ever be made. As the latitude of each extremity of the arc to be measured, must be determined by astronomical observation [taking the meridian altitude of some convenient star] the observer and instrument must both be very accurate indeed, if an error of one second of a degree may not be admitted as very possible: and as the errors at each extremity of the arc *may* conspire, they would in this case amount, in an arc of one degree, to one part in 1800 of the whole arc, or any fractional part thereof. Besides, to this must be added the possible error in the actual measurement of the arc itself.

3. *On the Pendulum Standard of Measure.*

In a late number of the Aurora, the editor (as I presume) states very fully, and fairly, a number of objections to this standard; namely, that "the vibrations will not

* If Congress should think proper to adopt the measure here suggested, the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia can furnish correct authenticated copies of the English standard weights and measures.

be the same in the same latitudes or longitudes; nor the same on a plane as on an elevation; nor on the summit of mountains, as at the base or on the sides; but will vary in proportion to the elevation of the position, and will also vary according to the influence of heat and cold on the matter of which the pendulum may be composed. Besides, there are other objections, particularly in determining at what point of the *bob* (or weight) suspended at the extreme of the rod, the true point of oscillation is considered to commence, or from which the point of suspension is to be measured."

But, I apprehend that all these objections to the use of the pendulum standard proposed by Mr. Jefferson, may be readily obviated; and that without any great exertion either of mechanical or mathematical skill.

1. Let the pendulum be made of a cylindrical rod of iron, or any other convenient metal, about sixty inches in length; suspended on a knife-edge support, passing through a perforation in the rod, about one third of its length below the upper extremity.

2. Let this pendulum be attached to any good clock, and let the number of oscillations be observed which it will make in a siderial day, that is, the interval of time between two successive passages of any one star over the same azimuth, as the vertical edge of a chimney, or the like, the eye of the observer being placed at some fixed point.

3. Let the latitude of the place of this observation, its elevation above the level of the sea, the mean temperature of the atmosphere during the time of the observation, the metal of which the pendulum is made, the proportion between its length and diameter, and the proportion between the part of the pendulum above and the part below the point of suspension, be all carefully noted.

4. Let any proportional part of the length of this pendulum be assumed as the unit-standard of linear measure. Or, rather, let the English foot be taken as this standard; and the proportion between it, and the whole length of the pendulum, be accurately ascertained.

From the above data, together with other facts relating to the subject, now well ascertained, the skilful mathematician will be enabled to calculate the proportion between the same unit of measure, and the length of any other pendulum employed, when any, or all, of the above circumstances or proportions, may be different. And thus, by a very simple process, an accurate and universal standard of measure may be obtained; communicable in *words*, merely, to the people of any distant age or country; which, at a very small expense, will enable them, in little more than a single day, to furnish themselves with a standard of measure of the same value with the original standard.

The small errors which may unavoidably occur, whether in the original or subsequent experiments, will have a natural tendency to compensate each other. But, indeed, these small errors, especially where the experiments are repeated, and a mean taken, can produce but a very trifling, and scarcely appreciable effect of the final result. Thus, if there should be an error in the going of the clock, even of five oscillations (supposing them to be nearly seconds) in the day, the consequent error in the length of the foot measure, deduced from the experiment, would be little more than one thousandth part of an inch; and the possible errors in the other parts of the data will have still less effect.

If this subject should ever obtain the consideration of Congress, it would be necessary to have the original standard marked on all the different materials [iron, brass, wood,] on which models or copies would be taken for practical uses: for then, these copies might be taken, iron from iron, brass from brass, and wood from wood, at any time, without being affected by temperature; which would not be the case, if the original and copy were of different materials.

The standard of linear measure being determined, those of weights and capacity might be readily obtained by any skilful artist; especially taking advantage of the now well ascertained facts, that a cubic foot, English measure, of pure water, at the temperature of 52½ degrees Fahr., will weigh exactly 1000 ounces [62½ pounds] avoirdupois; and that the volume of water is increased by a change of temperature from 42°, as in the following table:

32°	vol. 1.00090
42	1.
52	1.00021
62	1.00083
72	1.00180
82	1.00312
92	1.00477

R. P.

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Literature and Science.

From Tilloch's Philosophical Magazine.

NOTE ON THE DIVINING ROD.

By Dr. Charles Hutton.

In the last No. (44) of the Quarterly Review, several small mistakes have accidentally crept into the short account relating to the alleged property of the divining rod, for the discovery of water, when used by certain persons. And as it must be desirable that every work should be as correct as possible, I communicate for your consideration the following particulars relating to the note in pp. 373 and 374, concerning some small inadvertencies that have occurred through forgetfulness, or by mistakes in reports passing through two or three different persons, as will appear by comparing the note with the full account in the 4th vol. of the new edition (an. 1814) of Dr. Charles Hutton's translation of Montucla's Philosophical Recreations, as given by the lady herself, whose name was then lady M. but is now lady N.

The note begins thus: "Jan. 21st, 1818: it is just 50 years since lady N.'s attention was first called to this subject; she was then 16 years of age." Which must therefore have been in the year 1768; whereas lady M.'s first letter to Dr. Hutton stated, that the transaction was in 1772 (if not 1773), when she was 19 years old. But these are only trifling discrepancies.

The remainder of the note differs not materially from the statement in lady M.'s letter in Dr. Hutton's book above mentioned, till we arrive at the paragraph in the middle of the 374th page, viz. "A few years afterwards she went, at Dr. Hutton's particular request, to see him at Woolwich (Common), and she then showed him the experiment, and discovered a spring in a field which he had lately bought near the New College, then building. This same field he has since sold to the college, and for a larger price in consequence of the spring."

Now, sir, this paragraph consists of a mass of inaccuracies. The fact is, that Dr. H. having about 15 or 16 years before purchased the field alluded to, bounded close upon the east side of Woolwich Common, and being convenient for erecting dwelling houses, he immediately commenced a series of operations of that kind, and in the first year (1790) built the first house, which he occupied with his family during several years afterwards. This house has now been used for the last 14 years as the hospital of the military academy or college, and goes by the name of the Cube House; standing on a square of 40 feet each side, and the same in height. During the building of this house, as it had always been reported and understood that no water was to be found on the neighbouring common, for his satisfaction Dr. H. procured a set of iron boring rods, with which he bored the ground to the depth of 50 feet, where he found a copious spring of water, and then dug his first well, 16 years before lady M. did him the honour of her visit.

From that time Dr. H. continued similar operations, till, in the course of 15 years, he had erected almost 20 new and genteel houses, part of them of four stories, and the others of five stories high, and had sunk wells to them, of the same depth as the first; having taken down about half a score cottages of two stories high, which had before been on the estate, to make room for his new buildings.

About this time the board of ordnance had in contemplation to erect somewhere a new college, the old one in the Warren (now called the arsenal) being found too small, and the situation too confined: various situations were examined for that purpose; but on account of Dr. H.'s new residence, and of his having discovered plenty of water, his situation was preferred; accordingly the whole of Woolwich Common was purchased from the parish, and the new college was placed very near the first or cubical house built by Dr. H.

After the new college was completed, the king came down to view it, having a good taste in architecture, having indeed

himself made choice of the drawings for the front of it, being in the handsome Gothic style. It happened that when standing before the building, and looking down towards the beautiful military barracks, at the lower or opposite end of the common, he perceived that some new buildings partly intercepted the view of the barracks. His majesty immediately remarked the impropriety, and said that the obstructing buildings might be removed. He was then told that it was not in their power to remove them; that they were private freehold property, and belonged to Dr. H. the head master of the academy. "But," said his majesty, "they may be bought; let the whole be purchased, and the obstructing parts removed."

This was an order not to be neglected by the board of ordnance, and accordingly Dr. H. soon received a message from them, desiring him to transmit what price he demanded for his whole estate, houses and land. Dr. H. replied, that though he well knew they must have the property at any rate, yet he scorned to take any advantage of that circumstance, desiring not to have any thing beyond the bare and fair value of the estate; and agreeably to that resolution he requested the board to send down their own surveyor to set a value on the estate, and whatever that valuation might be, he would accept it. The board replied: There could be nothing more fair and liberal on his part. Accordingly, very soon after they sent down their own surveyor, Mr. Wyatt, for that purpose; who examined the property, both houses and land, said the buildings were very well executed, asked all the tenants what rent they paid: then adding all the rents together into one sum, multiplied it by 20: thus allowing 20 years purchase for the whole, both fields and land, which will certainly not be thought a high valuation. The surveyor reported to the board his estimate, with which they immediately acquainted Dr. H., who said he was quite satisfied; and the business was concluded, with thanks and compliments to Dr. H. for his liberal conduct. Immediately six of the largest obstructing houses were taken down.

After all this was done, and the estate conveyed and paid for, lady M. honoured Dr. H. with her visit; not to find him a spring of water, for that he had found himself long before, but to satisfy his curiosity as to the manner in which her ladyship performed the experiment, and which she certainly did, to the satisfaction of himself and family, and of other friends who witnessed it.

See the whole of lady M.'s correspondence on the subject, in the fourth volume of Dr. H.'s Philosophical Recreations above referred to.

FROM THE ANNALES DE CHIMIE ET DE PHYSIQUE.

Memoir on the Conversion of Animal Matter into new Substances, by means of Sulphuric Acid. By M. H. Braconnot.

Having in my former experiments discovered that wood, bark, straw, hemp, and every other kind of woody fibre might be converted, by the agency of sulphuric acid, into gum and sugar, I thought it expedient to extend my researches to animal substances. As many of these, such as skin, cellular membrane, cartilage, tendon, and tendinous sheath, are entirely dissolved by boiling water into *gelatine*, this substance was the first that occurred to me to examine.

Action of Sulphuric Acid on Gelatine.

Twelve grammes of glue reduced to powder were digested with a double weight of concentrated sulphuric acid without artificial heat. In twenty-four hours the liquid was not more coloured than if mere water had been employed. I then added a decilitre of water, and boiled the whole for five hours, renewing the water from time to time as it wasted. I next diluted it, saturated it with chalk, filtered, and evaporated to a syrupy consistence, and let it stand for about a month. In this period a number of granular crystals had separated, which adhered pretty strongly to the bottom of the vessel, and had a very decided saccharine taste. These crystals were collected by pouring off the supernatant syrup, then washed with weak spirit to dissolve out the adherent syrup, then pressed through a cloth, then redissolved in a little water and again crystallized, whereby they became tolerably pure. This sugar might in strictness form a new species of saccharine matter; its properties are the following:

On the Sugar of Gelatine.

This species crystallizes much more easily than cane sugar. If its solution is ever so little concentrated by heat, a crystallized pellicle forms without delay, which is speedily renewed when the former is broken down; but when the evaporation is

allowed to proceed slowly, we obtain very hard granular crystals, grating under the teeth like sugar candy, and in the form of flattened prisms or tabular groups. Its taste is nearly as saccharine as grape sugar; its solubility in water scarcely exceeds that of sugar of milk. This solution mixed with leaven gives no signs of fermentation. Boiling alcohol, even when diluted, has no action on this sugar. It is less fusible than cane sugar, and better resists decomposition in a raised temperature. By distillation, it gives a light white sublimate, and an ammoniacal product, which shows the presence of azote. This saccharine matter seems on the first view to have some analogy with sugar of milk; but the latter (as M. Vogel has observed,) is changed by sulphuric acid into a sugar very soluble in water and in alcohol; and besides, the sugar of gelatine, when treated by nitric acid, gives no mucous acid, but a new species of acid, which I have named the *nitro-saccharine*, and will be described in the following paragraph.

Of the Nitro-Saccharine Acid.

If nitric acid is poured on sugar of gelatine whilst still coloured, it does not appear to dissolve in the cold, but becomes very white, and the acid appears to take up the colouring matter: if this mixture is then heated, a solution takes place, but without the evolution of red nitrous vapour, and the effervescence that occurs when other animal and vegetable matters are heated with this acid. This nitrous solution being now evaporated (slowly towards the end,) gives a residue which congeals on cooling into a single crystalline mass. This, when pressed between paper and redissolved, yields the *nitro-saccharine acid* in purity. The quantity of this acid is much more than that of the saccharine acid from which it is obtained. It is very soluble, and crystallizes with the greatest ease in beautiful, colourless, transparent, flattened prisms, slightly striated like glauber's salt. Its acid and somewhat saccharine taste resembles that of the acid of tartar. When heated by itself, it puffs up considerably, melts indistinctly, and gives out a pungent vapour. It produces no change on earthy or metallic solutions. With potash, it forms a super-acid and a neutral salt, both of which crystallize in fine needles, and have a cooling nitrous taste, leaving an after flavour of sugar. When thrown on hot coals they detonate like saltpetre. The nitro-saccharine acid dissolves carbonate of lime with strong effervescence, and the liquor, gently evaporated, entirely passes into fine needled prismatic crystals, which do not deliquesce in the open air, are little soluble in concentrated alcohol, melt on hot coals, and then detonate. This acid forms with oxyd of copper a crystallizable salt, unchangeable in the air: with magnesia, a deliquescent, uncrystallizable salt, which puffs up excessively when heated, melts, and leaves a brown spongy residue resembling a vegetation. With oxyd of lead it gives a permanent gummy mass that will not crystallize: with iron and zinc it produces metallic salts, evolving hydrogen during solution.

These are the properties of some of the salts of this acid, which appears to be a compound of sugar and gelatine with nitric acid; and it is remarkable that this kind of sugar has its elements so intimately combined, as to resist the disorganizing power of nitric acid, which decomposes with evolution of nitrous gas the other vegetable compounds.

Examination of the Syrup separated from the Sugar of Gelatine.

This syrup, which was decidedly saccharine in its taste, still retained a quantity of the sugar above described, but mixed with a matter slightly azotic, and in part separable by tannin under the form of a reddish precipitate. The syrup, diluted with water, mixed with leaven, and kept a long time in a warm place, assumed neither the spirituous nor the putrid fermentation. When strongly heated it puffed up, and burned without the fetid smell that distinguishes animal matter, and left a coal of very easy incineration. Indeed the gelatine had lost much of its animal character, and approached more to the vegetable substances, slightly animalized: as no azotic gas was given out during the action of sulphuric acid on gelatine, I had reason to suppose that ammonia was formed, and accordingly this alkali was evolved on rubbing the syrup with potash.

This syrup is but little acted on by alcohol; but when the spirit is diluted and boiling, it dissolves a portion of the syrup, and on cooling deposits a sediment, consisting of sugar and a peculiar white matter, which will be presently examined. The spirituous solution gave by evaporation a syrup with a decided odour of honey, and some tendency to crystallize.

The greater part of the syrup, which was the portion insoluble in weak alcohol, still retained a saccharine taste mingled

with that of animal jelly. I could not succeed in precipitating all the animal matter by tannin.

Action of Sulphuric Acid on Muscular Fibre.

Some lean beef pulled into small pieces was soaked in a large quantity of water, which was frequently renewed to separate all the soluble matter, and then strongly and gradually pressed between folds of cloth. Thirty grammes of the beef fibre, thus prepared, were mixed with as much sulphuric acid, in which they softened and dissolved without changing the colour of the acid, or disengagement of sulphurous acid. The solution was then heated to promote the solution of some remaining particles, and cooled to allow of the separation of a layer of fat which rose to the surface, though the precaution had been taken to choose a very lean piece of meat. The solution was then diluted with about a decilitre of water, and boiled for nine hours, renewing the water from time to time; then saturated with chalk and evaporated, and it yielded an extract not sensibly saccharine, but which had such a decided taste of osmazome, that it appeared to me fit to be used in preparing soup. This extract rubbed with potash disengaged ammonia. In the fire it swelled and burnt, leaving a coal easy to incinerate. The solution of the extract did not putrefy in a gentle and long continued heat. Some of the extract was boiled at several intervals with alcohol of 34° (Beaumé), the different portions of spirit were mixed together, and deposited, on cooling, about a gramme of a peculiar white matter, which for the present I shall term *leucine*.

Of Leucine.

This substance when dry was white and pulverulent, but it still retained a little animal matter, precipitable by adding tannin with precaution to the solution. After some hours standing, I filtered the liquor, which passed colourless. I then evaporated it till a pellicle formed on the surface; under which, after twenty-four hours standing, one could distinguish small mamillated crystals somewhat crisp in the mouth, and of a dead white, lining the bottom of the dish. If on the other hand the solution of leucine in tepid water is left to spontaneous evaporation, there forms on the surface a multitude of small, detached, flattened, circular crystals, exactly resembling button moulds, with an inverted edge on their circumference, and a depression in their centre. Leucine has an agreeable taste of gravy or broth. It is lighter than water, swimming on its surface. When heated in a small glass retort it melts, but at a much higher temperature than boiling water, gives out a smell of boiled meat, and partly sublimes in small, granular, opake-white crystals: the remainder, which is liquid, contains empyreumatic oil, and renders blue the reddened colour of litmus.

The solution of this sublimate in water is not troubled by subacetite of lead, nor any other of the usual metallic tests, except nitrate of mercury, which entirely separates it from its solvent, in the form of a white flocculent precipitate, the supernatant liquid assuming a rose colour.

Leucine dissolves readily in nitric acid. If this solution is heated to expel the greater part of the acid, a very slight effervescence is perceptible, but no production of red nitrous vapour; and the remaining solution, after gentle evaporation, congeals into a crystalline mass, which, after pressure between filtering paper and re-solution in water, crystallizes into thin, divergent, colourless needles. This forms a peculiar acid, analogous to the nitro-saccharine above described.

This *nitro-leucic acid* forms peculiar salts with the several bases. With lime it produces a permanent salt crystallized in rounded groups. With magnesia the salt formed appears as small granular crystals, which do not deliquesce in the air, in which respect it differs from the nitro-saccharate of magnesia.

Examination of the Alcoholic Liquid from which the Leucine had precipitated.

This solution still retained a quantity of leucine. On evaporation it left a thick granulated residue, out of which cold alcohol dissolved a reddish extractive matter, leaving the leucine untouched. This extract is slightly deliquescent, and has rather a bitterish taste of burnt roast meat. It was not changed by sulphuric acid; its solution in water was hardly troubled by subacetite of lead and infusion of galls, and not altered by sulphate of iron.

Of the Substance insoluble in Alcohol.

The extractive matter arising from the muscular fibre treated with sulphuric acid was only partially soluble in alcohol, as before described; the portion insoluble in this reagent was the most abundant. I dissolved it a second time in water, to separate the sulphate of lime with which it was mixed, and obtained by evaporation a yel-

lowish brown extractive matter, slightly deliquescent, and having a taste of broth, probably owing to the leucine which it still retained. In the fire it swelled and burnt like matter moderately animalized, and left a coal easy to incinerate. The solution of this extract in water gave a reddish precipitate with infusion of galls, which was loose and flocculent, like that which arises from matter little animalized. Persulphate of iron gave a copious reddish flocculent precipitate; nitrate of silver, a grey precipitate; nitrate of mercury, a white coagulum. As the subacetite of lead gives also a copious white precipitate with this extract, and does not disturb the solution of leucine, I hoped to be able by this means to separate the two; and in consequence added this reagent, and obtained the white precipitate, and from the filtered liquor I first separated the lead which it retained by carbonate of ammonia, and evaporated the syrupy residue; but I procured very little leucine by this process.

Action of Sulphuric Acid on Wool.

Fifteen grammes of white woollen cloth, cut into small shreds, were moistened with sixty grammes of sulphuric acid, lowered with a quarter of its weight of water. A little sulphurous acid gas was given out, and the wool became reddish, but without perceptibly softening; the mixture was then exposed to a water-boiling heat, on a sand bath, and with shaking it was changed to an uniform mucilage. The digestion was continued till a complete solution was effected, and the whole became a red liquid, and ceased to give out sulphurous acid: it then deposited a sediment, which, on further examination, was easily burnt to ashes, and proved to be sulphate of lime, with a fat bituminous matter, an animal substance, and a very little silex.

The acid solution, diluted with water, was boiled for nine hours, then was saturated with chalk, and evaporated to the consistence of an extract, which was yellowish, and had a taste like the extractive matter of broth, giving the same appearances when burnt, and yielding ammonia by trituration with potash.

This extract was treated with weak boiling alcohol, in successive portions, which dissolved out of it a small quantity of leucine, and a substance a little animalized. As to the portion insoluble in this weak spirit, which was the most considerable, it had the same taste of broth, and all the other properties which were found in the analogous substance produced from fibrine.

Wishing to know in what state the wool existed immediately after its conversion into mucilage, I moistened eight grammes of it with sixteen grammes of sulphuric acid, diluted with four grammes of water; and after some minutes digestion in a boiling-water heat, and subsequent shaking, there resulted a thick red mucilage, which totally dissolved in water, except a little whitish matter, which was only a portion of the wool, but little changed. The acid liquid was saturated with chalk, and gave by evaporation a substance having exactly the appearance of common glue, but with little cohesion, not deliquescent, and easily reducible to powder. Its taste was disagreeable. In the fire it puffed up and burnt with a smell like scorched wool, but less fetid, but without giving out any sulphurous acid: the coal burnt to ashes as easily as vegetable coal. This substance gave out ammonia rubbed with potash. Infusion of galls poured into the solution of this substance decomposes it entirely: the precipitate is white, flocculent, and does not collect into an elastic cohesive mass like that which forms in the solution of gelatine. Acetite of lead hardly troubles it; but on adding nitric acid there forms a small insoluble deposit of sulphate of lead. Nitrate of mercury and subacetite of lead produce copious white precipitates. Persulphate of iron acts on this as it does on solution of gelatine, it coagulates it entirely into an orange-red mass. Boiling alcohol hardly touches it.

It appears, therefore, that the principal facts contained in this memoir are the following:

1. That animal substances may be changed by the action of sulphuric acid into substances containing a much less proportion of azote.

2. That this change is brought about by a subtraction of hydrogen and azote, in the proportions necessary to form ammonia; and probably by an absorption of oxygen from the sulphuric acid.

3. That gelatine may be converted in this way into a species of sugar, *sui generis*, which does not appear to exist any where naturally.

4. That this sugar combines intimately with nitric acid, without sensibly decomposing it, even with the assistance of heat, and there results a peculiar crystallized acid, to which I have given the name of *nitro-saccharine*.

5. That wool, and especially fibrine, when treated with sulphuric acid, yield a

peculiar white matter, which I have denominated *leucine*.

6. That this matter, heated with nitric acid, does not sensibly decompose it, and produces a crystallizable *nitro-leucic* acid.

7. Lastly, That other uncrystallizable and sapid substances, analogous to certain vegetable principles, are also produced by the action of sulphuric acid on the most insoluble of the animal principles.

Test for Wheat Flour.—D. Tadei, in the course of various researches respecting the fermentation of grain, has ascertained that the gluten of wheat is composed of two substances perfectly distinct from each other, one of which he has named *gloiodine*, and the other *zimome*. The first of these gives to gluten its elasticity, and the second is the cause of the fermentation which takes place on the mixture of gluten with other vegetable substances.

Having had occasion to mix various gums with different kinds of flour, D. Tadei observed, that when the powder of guaiacum is mixed with flour, a blue tint is produced. When kneaded with any meal or flour containing but little gluten, the blue colour is very feeble: it acquires no blue tint with flour that has been much altered in its qualities: with gluten or zimome a very fine blue tint is instantly produced. Guaiacum, it is inferred, may therefore be employed as a test to detect adulteration of flour.—*Giornale di Fisica, Chemica, &c.* 1819.

The French government is now preparing a voyage to Lapland. It is to proceed beyond the North Cape, into the Frozen Ocean, and it is expected to terminate about the end of September this year.

New Voyage of Discovery in the North. Letters from St. Petersburgh, dated March, state that a new voyage of discovery will be undertaken this summer in the north. The expedition will sail from the mouth of the Lena, for the Frozen Ocean, in order to examine the coast of Siberia, and the islands which were discovered to the north of it some years ago. As it is not yet ascertained whether these supposed islands may not be one main land or not; and as hitherto they have only been visited in winter, it will be interesting to know how far the ice will permit vessels to advance during summer, and to determine its extent. [*Repertory of Arts.*

T. Edward Bowdich, esq. conductor of the mission to Ashantee, has published a "Prospectus of an Expedition into Africa." He invites the "institutions and individuals of Europe in general, by subscribing for shares of £5 each, to make this great object immediately practicable. He devotes his services, he risks his life for the success." The necessary expenses he estimates at £700. He "does not promise a dazzling and precipitous rush to the Niger, to Timbuctoo, a glance over men and nature *en passant*, but he promises to advance to both, to procure solid advantages, and to make a firm progress in the interior, which may conduct us or our descendants throughout it.

The harmless simple enterprises originated by individuals, admit of no offence to the laws of nature, or to the laws of nations, but peaceably benefit both science and humanity; witness the illustrious exertions of the African Association of England. It is desirable that the emissaries of such societies, should precede the self interested trader, or the daring adventurer, to establish the benevolent character of Europeans in the hearts of the Africans by first impressions."

He will "never accept any salary or remuneration from the funds collected. He will never accept recompence from individuals, or from any other than my own government. For his zeal, he refers to the mission to Ashantee; for his qualifications, to the members of the institute who have assisted his studies in Europe," and thus concludes:

"I pledge myself as the zealous servant of science and literature, to collect, orally and in MS. every thing that can enlarge and illustrate our knowledge of the geography, the history, the superstitions, and the customs, of the interior of Africa. I pledge myself to collect zoological, mineralogical, and botanical specimens, for every institution of Europe which may desire them. I pledge myself not merely to multiply the observations of astronomy and physical science, which my own studies and the experience of my instructions have suggested to me, but I promise gratefully to receive and zealously to execute, the suggestions of every man of science, the commands of every society, to prove myself, as long as such a climate may spare my life, the devoted and laborious envoy of Europe, and

the firm and compassionating friend of Africa.

I am the first to subscribe to the enterprise, and I will be the last to abandon it.

T. Edward Bowdich,
Conductor of the Mission to Ashantee.

T. E. Bowdich, esq.—one share . . . £5.

Amber.—Dr. Brewster maintains, from a number of experiments and their results, that amber is an indurated vegetable juice.

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

Messrs. Editors—In a late excursion I made to Cape May, I found the subjoined notices marked on the wall of the house in which I lodged, respecting the encroachment of the sea on the land, in that place, during a period of sixteen years. This, however, is but a small part of what the fury of Neptune has there accomplished; for I was informed by an old pilot, that thirty years ago, he had drank water from wells, then standing on the bank, which now are situate far beyond the breakers—and that orchards had existed on the spot now forming the beach.

If you think this worthy of notice, it is much at your service. The house adverted to, is occupied by Dr. Whale, and has an exposure to the ocean, nearly I believe N. N. E. Yours, respectfully, Civis.

August 17, 1820.

1804	. . . .	334 ft. to sea bank.
1806	. . . .	324
1807	. . . .	294
1808	. . . .	276
1809	. . . .	267
1811	. . . .	259
1812	. . . .	254
1816	. . . .	225
1817	. . . .	214
1818	. . . .	204
1819	. . . .	188
June 22, 1820	. . . .	180

Lost in 16 years, 154 feet—or about nine and a half feet annually, supposing it uniform, which, however, from the above table, does not appear to be the case.

Literature in New South Wales.—At Sydney, in New South Wales, there are at present three public journals, and five other periodical publications. A second printing press has also been established at Port Jackson. They now export cattle to the Isle of France, and the market at Sydney is considered as plentiful in the different commodities of Europe, as well as of India and China.

FROM THE NEW YORK STATESMAN.

Extract of a Letter, dated Canandaigua, July, 1820.

I saw for the first time in the Seneca river at Montezuma, the aquatic plant called wild rice or folle arvine. It grows all over the west and north; and wherever it flourishes myriads of water fowls are attracted to it, and derive their chief support and exquisite flavour from its alimentary qualities. In the lakes and rivers adjoining Montezuma, thousands of wild geese and ducks of all kinds congregate at the proper season for food, except the canvas back duck or anas valsineria of Wilson, which derives its name from a water plant called valsineria, on the roots of which it feeds, and which Wilson states to be a fresh water vegetable, that grows in some parts of the Hudson and Delaware, and in most of the rivers that fall into the Chesapeake.

Some difficulty has occurred not only about the botanical name, but also about the botanical character of the wild rice, or wild oats. The confusion of nomenclature has arisen from Linnæus himself. In his Species Plantarum, he has denominated it zezania aquatica, and in his Mantisa, zezania palustris—and it has been called by other botanists, zezania claurlosa. I shall prefer the first name as most characteristic. It has been well described by Mr. Lambert, as zezania panicula inferne racemosa superne spicata. Pursh represents it as a perennial plant. Nuttall and Michaux are silent on this point, and Eaton says it is an annual, in which opinion I concur.

Mr. Lambert, in a communication in the 7th volume of the Transactions of the Linnæan Society of London, has given a figure of this plant as growing at Spring Grove, the seat of sir Joseph Banks, in England. It appears that sir Joseph received some of the seed gathered in a lake, in Canada, and put up in jars of water. It was sown in a pond at Spring Grove, where he has a great quantity of the plant, growing annually, ripening its seeds extremely well in autumn, and sowing itself round the edges.

By what I can learn, this same plant grows in Lake George, and Lake Champlain, and in all the western lakes. It produces seed in some places in September, and in others in October. It grows in shallow water, and sometimes to the height of eight feet. Some of the western Indians derive their principal support from it. The grain it bears is superior to the common rice, and if cut before ripe, it makes excellent fodder, embracing the advantages of hay and oats. Mr. Lambert's figure of the plant in the Linnæan Transactions is accurate, and exactly resembles the one growing in the Seneca river. Its productiveness may be inferred from the food it furnishes to thousands of human beings, and to myriads of aquatic animals. From the success of the experiment of sir Joseph Banks, it is highly probable that it will grow in any part of this country and Great Britain; and if so, may it not be considered as a good substitute for the oryza sativa or common rice. It is well known that the latter furnishes more subsistence to the human race than any other plant. Pursh mentions

a grass which he calls the oryzopsis asperifolia, which he observed on the broad mountains of this country, and which he says contains large seeds, that produce the finest flour. Perhaps this species of oryzopsis, although generally different, bears the same relation to z. aquatica in its importance and place of growth, as the mountain rice of India does to the common rice of that region. At all events, the more I see of this country, the more I am convinced of its vast ability to support the human species, and of the propriety of calling its latent powers into operation.

The following is extracted from a late English paper:

NEW MECHANICAL INVENTIONS.

From the great efforts which have been made, for many ages past, to bring the two following most important machines to perfection, it might have been reasonably concluded that it was fruitless for any one to attempt further improvements in them; but the scientific reader will learn with satisfaction, that from the successful result of the mechanical skill of Mr George Clymer, an American gentleman, lately arrived from Philadelphia, it is evident there was much room left for improvement; and we have no doubt but the *first* will prove to be the means of prolonging, and the *second* of saving, the lives of numerous human beings.

The "*Columbian Printing Press*" is, in its appearance, truly handsome, and in its properties far surpasses any other printing press now in use. We have perused a variety of testimonials, from printers of the highest respectability, which clearly prove its superiority; and, although we have had but a short trial of its merits, we cannot withhold our corroborating sentiments respecting it. This press is remarkable for the simplicity of its construction; the ease of labour which it administers to the workmen, hitherto so excessively laborious at all other presses, particularly in working off large forms; the amazing power and simple method of regulating that power, to work the heaviest or the lightest forms, by the *only true* and *infallible* mode of effecting the finest typographic specimens between two flat surfaces, technically termed the table and platin—all tend to prove it the acme of perfection in that branch of mechanism.

The "*Columbian Ship's Pump and Extinguishing Engine*" is an hydraulic machine which strikes us with profound astonishment. We have visited Mr. Clymer, at his manufactory, No. 1, Finsbury street, near Finsbury square, for the express purpose of seeing this engine in operation. Its appearance is truly *nouvelle*, and, as a ship's pump, it raises and discharges, with perfect ease, from 250 to 300 gallons of water per minute; and, together with the water, it raises and disgorges *all* substances which do not exceed the diameter of 18 and 20lb. shots. We have seen this engine raise and discharge 18 and 24lb. shots in rapid succession, which sufficiently proves the impossibility of choking or retarding it in its operations.

All other ship's pumps are liable to become choked, and thus rendered useless, by ballast or other substances unavoidably mixing with the water; but this extraordinary engine bids defiance to *any* substances impeding its operations, or putting it out of working order; and being composed almost of one solid mass of metal, and remarkably simple in its construction, any person possessing common understanding can always keep it in order. As a *fire engine*, to which it may be converted in a few seconds, it possesses powers very far beyond any engine now in use, and may be worked with considerably less labour.

Mr. Barlow, one of the mathematical professors in the Royal Military Academy, has discovered *that the magnetic quality of iron resides wholly in the surface*, so that an iron shell, weighing only 3 lbs. 4 oz. will act as powerfully on the needle, as a solid ball of the same dimensions, weighing upwards of 300 lbs.

Extract of a Letter from Caleb Atwater, esq. to the Editors.

"I discovered a considerable bed of alum in stone in a bank of Jonathan's creek, about seven miles west of Zanesville, and immediately beside the great road. Salt, in almost any quantity, may be manufactured near Zanesville. The water is easily raised, and not very deep; its strength is equal to any in the western country. Iron ore abounds in the vicinity: fossil coal is quite abundant not far from the town: clay, fit for pipes and queensware, is also here. The people are industrious and enterprising, and the place bids fair to become a great manufacturing town."

ALTITUDE OF KEARSARGE MOUNTAIN.

On Wednesday the 2d ult. a party, consisting of captain Alden Partridge, of Norwich, Vt. lieutenant John Wright, late of the United States corps of engineers, and assistant professor of mathematics at West Point, cadets Hopson and Buswell, of the military academy, Messrs. Curtis and Flint, juniors in Dartmouth College, and master Charles, son of Mills Olcott, esq. of Hanover, were joined at the foot of the mountain by Moses Eastman, James I. Wells, and Joshua Fifield, esquires, of Salisbury, together with two or three other gentlemen, and proceeded to the summit, where

> ——"Nature seem'd to sit alone,
> Majestic on the craggy throne."

The ascent is easy, though steep, from the north, the most practicable route. The prospect of the surrounding country from the top of this mountain is picturesque and very extensive in a clear atmosphere, and at sunrise, when no clouds obscure, the dim Atlantic may be seen just verging the ho-

rizon. The course of the river Merrimack may be traced for many miles, by the vapour hovering over its waters; and a countless number of small streams, ponds, &c. diversify the landscape.

We have tarried on the mountain over night, and enjoyed one of the most beautiful of its scenes. The cloudless glory of the moon, and the increased radiance of the starry host, rendered the prospect, if possible, more delightful, though less extensive, than in the day time.

The mountain itself, for some distance down its sides, has become bare from effects of fires; but from its base upwards to its centre, it is covered with a heavy growth of timber. Midway up, mulberries, whortleberries, &c. are found in abundance, and refresh the traveller when weary and faint.

Capt. Partridge has obligingly favoured us with the altitudes, as ascertained by him from observations at several points, viz.

Altitude of the mountain above tide water, 2461 feet.

Do. above Foster's tavern on the turnpike at the foot of the mountain, 2279.

Do. above the old farm house on Morey's hill, 1263.

The elevation of the mountain above tide water was ascertained by determining its elevation above the residence of captain P. at Norwich, the altitude of which above the sea he has determined by a mean of more than three thousand observations.

This scientific gentleman has visited all the principal mountains of the north, and we hope ere long to be able to present our readers with a table of their altitudes, and a description of the scenery around them.

[*New Hamp. Patriot.*

Literary Notices, Colleges, &c.

The Rev. Daniel Dana, D. D. of Newburyport, has been unanimously elected president of Dartmouth College.

Middlebury College.—At the annual commencement of this literary institution, which took place on the 16th inst, twenty-two young gentlemen were admitted to the degree of bachelor of arts.

Twelve gentlemen, alumni of this college, were admitted to the degree of master of arts, and Robert B. Patton, alumnus of Yale, and professor of languages in this college, was admitted *ad eundem.*

At the late anniversary commencement at Allegheny College, (Penn.) the honorary degree of A. M. was conferred on the Hon. Daniel Coney; and that of M. D. on Elias Weld, of Maine.

At the commencement in Dartmouth College on Wednesday last, twenty-four candidates were admitted to the first degree. The degree of doctor in divinity was conferred on the Rev. Samuel Wood, of Boscawen.

The number of students of the several classes of Harvard University, according to the last printed catalogue, is as follows; Theological students, 38—law students, 11—resident medical students, 4—students attending medical lectures, 58—seniors, 56—juniors, 63—sophomores, 72—freshmen, 81. Total 383.

Oxford and Cambridge Universities.—It appears by a summary of the members of Oxford and Cambridge, in their calendor of 1819 and 1820, that the following is the number:

	OXFORD.	
1819	Members of convocation . .	1874
	on the books . .	3984
1820	of convocation . .	1873
	on the books . .	4102
	CAMBRIDGE.	
1819	Members of the Senate . .	1495
	on the boards . .	3698
1820	of the Senate . .	1558
	on the boards . .	3395

Record.

REVOLUTION IN NAPLES.

It appears that a complete revolution has been effected in the kingdom of Naples, without bloodshed, and that a constitutional government, similar to that of Spain, was immediately to be adopted. On the sixth of July the king issued the following decree:

"The general wish of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies for a constitutional government having manifested itself, we consent to this, of our full and entire will, and promise to publish the basis in the space of eight days.

"Till the publication of the constitution, the existing laws shall continue to be in vigour.

"Having thus satisfied the public wish, we order the troops to return to their corps, and every individual to his ordinary occupation.

(Signed) "FERDINAND."

Naples, July 6.

On the same day the king abdicated the throne to his son Francis, who the next day issued the following proclamation:

"By virtue of the act dated yesterday, by which his majesty, our august father, has transmitted to us, with the unlimited clause of the Alter Ego, the exercise of all rights, prerogatives, pre-eminence and faculties, in the same manner as they can be exercised by his majesty.

"In consequence of the decision of his majesty to give a constitution to the state;

"Wishing to manifest our sentiments to all his subjects, and to second at the same time their unanimous wish;

"We have resolved to decree, and do decree as follows:

"Art. 1. The constitution of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies shall be the same that was

adopted for the kingdom of Spain in 1812, and sanctioned by his Catholic Majesty in March, 1820, saving the modifications which the national representation constitutionally convoked, shall consider it suitable to propose, in order to adapt it to the particular circumstances of the states of his majesty.

"2. We reserve to ourselves to adopt and make known all the arrangements which may be necessary to facilitate and accelerate the execution of the present decree.

"3. All our ministers secretaries of state are charged with the execution of the present decree.

"Naples, 7th July, 1820.
(Signed) "FRANCIS, Lieut. Gen."

AFRICAN INTELLIGENCER.

The publication of a monthly journal, of this title, has been commenced in this city, under the superintendence of Mr. *J. Ashmun.* It is intended to be an auxiliary in forwarding the progress of the plan for restoring the free black population of our states to the country of their ancestry; and is entitled to the support of all who feel an interest in this object, or are willing to receive information on it. The prospectus gives the following view of the plan of this work:

"The contents of the Intelligencer, by a natural distribution, will be arranged under three distinct heads.

"The first, of *general intelligence*, will embrace such notices of Africa, and its inhabitants, including the geography, natural history, and productions of the former, the physical and moral character, history, and present condition of the latter, as will present to readers a distinct and extensive view of the great objects to which the exercise of African philanthropy may be most profitably directed.

"The second division will be devoted to articles explanatory of the history, nature, and consequences of the *slave trade*, and the means employed for suppressing it; with a journal of the current operations, of our own and European governments, to effect its entire annihilation.

"The third division of the journal will be occupied exclusively in recording and detailing the history, proceedings, and correspondence of the *American Colonization Society*, at home and abroad."

The price of the work, stitched in monthly numbers, and delivered to subscribers, is two dollars and fifty cents per annum. [*Nat. Int.*

The Tennessee legislature have lately passed an act, which in effect, we think, makes paper money a legal tender: it will at least have this effect on small debts. The following was an excellent hint to the legislators who have disregarded the loudest warnings of experience.

Tennessee Legislature, July 25.

The speaker announced to the House that he had received per mail, a letter, which was handed to the clerk, who read the address as follows. "The honourable Robert Weakly, or the honourable James Fentress, or his excellency, Joseph M'Minn, esq. governor and commander in and over the army and navy of the state of Tennessee, or in their absence Felix Grundy, esq. Murfreesborough." The letter being opened it was found to cover a twenty shilling bill, of the Bank of James River, dated the first of September, 1776—the envelope was entirely blank. Mr. Grundy inquired whence the letter came, and being answered it was post marked Dandridge, July 20th, 1820—moved that the bill be delivered to the member from Jefferson, with a view that the money might be returned to the owner, if he could be found.

Mr. Bradford replied that his people stood in no need of such money, and hoped the gentleman from Davidson, might be permitted to take and apply it to the relief of his people—a general laugh—The letter and *twenty shilling* bill, laid on the table without order.

DIED,

At West Point, on the 28th ultimo, ANDREW ELLICOTT, professor of mathematics at the Military Academy, aged 67. He was one of the few men of our country, who, at the period of his youth, had made any considerable advances in the mathematical sciences. These he continued to admire and cultivate during life; but to no particular branch was he so much devoted, as to practical astronomy. In this, he was pre-eminent, both in the expert use of instruments, and the accuracy of his calculations, which were the results of his observations. The reputation which he gained for those rare, and peculiar acquirements, was evinced by the number and frequency of his appointments, both by individual states, and the United States, for the purpose of adjusting such boundary lines as depended on the most nice astronomical observations. While engaged in these, he did not fail to improve the advantages which his travels presented, of adding to the general stock of natural knowledge. The geography of our country, in particular, is indebted to him for many interesting details, and descriptions of its unfrequented parts, as well as for the most accurate adjustment of the relative situation of particular places. By his death, science is deprived of a devoted admirer—the Military Academy of one of its best friends and most distinguished professors—society of a benevolent and useful member, and his family of a tender husband, and a kind and affectionate parent.

HOUSE OF REFORM.

A plan has been set on foot in the county of Lancashire, England, for establishing a House of Reform for discharged criminals. The earl of Derby is the patron of the institution, and the duke of Hamilton the president. The former gentleman has opened the books with a subscription of two hundred, and the latter one hundred pounds.

The design of the institution is, in the words of the prospectus, "To provide a temporary asylum for persons of both sexes, liberated from penal confinement in the several jails and houses of correction, belonging to the county palatine of Lancashire; to furnish them with the means of religious instruction; to habituate them to a system of moral and Christian restraint; to employ them in various trades of profitable la-

bour, qualifying them, during their residence in the Refuge, for the future exercise of some honest, industrious, and reputable calling; by mild restraints and reasonable motives to reform the character to the voluntary exercise of self government, and to habits of practical virtue; and when at length such progress in amendment is made, as to justify a readmission to free intercourse with society, then to furnish recommendations, (which it is hoped the merciful part of mankind may receive) or to secure for them, by other means, such situations in life as may be suited to their conditions and acquirements."

No stronger proof need be given of the pressing call for such an institution, than the annexed statement. The following is the return of prisoners confined for trial in the Liverpool county jail, in the years 1816, 1817, and 1818, respectively:

1816	Males,	482	Total	672
	Females,	190		
1817	Males,	583	Total	718
	Females,	135		
1818	Males,	991	Total	1218
	Females,	227		

Again, to prove within the same period the enormous increase of juvenile depravity—in the Manchester House of Correction, the boys from 8 to 18 are returned as follows:

1816 - - - -	61
1817 - - - -	119
1819 - - - -	181

In three years the number of boy delinquents has been very nearly tripled.

Miscellany.

"Money makes the Mare go."

This is an old proverb, but in what sense is it true? It is not *literally* so: nobody believes that money itself drives the mare, but that the owner of the mare will drive quickly when he hopes to gain money by so doing. And what does he want with the money, but to buy therewith food and raiment and shelter and every comfort and luxury that he can afford? We might then say with equal truth, that bread and butter, or a pair of breeches, or a gold watch, or a wife and children, will make the mare go. Obvious as this may appear, it is overlooked by many sensible people.

The editor of the Richmond Enquirer states as his opinion, that "the reduction in the quantity of our circulating medium is a principal source" of our distresses. If this be true, the mode of relief is very plain. Let a tax to the amount of fifty millions of dollars be imposed by Congress, and made payable in goods suited to foreign markets, which goods shall be rated at prices at which they will sell abroad. Let them be sold for gold and silver, and let the gold and silver be brought home; none must be expended in buying any thing for sale here, though ever so great a profit might be made of it, and though we may want the foreign articles very much; for, according to the supposition, there is a greater demand for money than for any thing else, though our merchants are ignorant of it. When the precious metals have reached home, send them to the Mint to be made into "circulating medium," and then let those who have receipts for the tax by which the money was procured, come forward and receive the amount of them in coin. Does the editor of the Richmond Enquirer think this would make business much better?

We generally agree with his opinions as to what is proper to be done or left undone in these matters, but not so often with the reasons on which they are founded.

RESTRICTIONS ON COMMERCE.

After a most distressing description of the misery of the poorer classes in Great Britain, the Edinburgh Review (No. 66) proceeds to state that if "government be really desirous of restoring prosperity and tranquillity to the country, and of saving the great bulk of the people of Britain from all risk of being permanently reduced to the same hopeless and desperate condition as their brethren in Ireland, they must lose no time in adopting a different system from that on which they have hitherto acted."

The assessments for the support of the poor have increased in the last fifteen years from *four* to *ten* or *twelve* millions, and yet the cry of relief is more loud and pressing than at any former period, and the reviewers see no other method of alleviating this distress, than by extending the foreign market, and this remedy they say, England has completely in her power. "The time is now come when we must either abandon this exclusive and unnatural system, or submit to be deprived of that widely extended commerce, which has hitherto afforded the means of subsistence to so large a proportion of our population, and been the main source of all our wealth and prosperity. The artificial protection which had at first been granted to a few branches of industry, has been urged as a valid reason by those engaged in other branches, why they should be placed in the same favoured situation. In this way, the restrictive and prohibitive system has at length interfered with the freedom of commerce in almost every department. We could fill half a dozen of pages with the mere names of commodities, whose importation is entirely prohibited; and as many more with the names of those, on which duties amounting in effect to a prohibition, and intended to act as such, have been imposed."

"If any thing besides the distress and misery of which it has already been so productive, were wanting, to induce us to abandon our prohibitory system, and to consent gradually to recur to the sound principle of a free trade, it would be found in the effect which it has had on the

policy of other nations. Instead of ascribing the commercial superiority of Great Britain to its true causes—to the comparative freedom of our constitution—the absence of all oppressive feudal privileges, and our perfect security of property, our foreign rivals have re-echoed the sentiments of ministers, and contend that it has resulted entirely from the protection granted to our merchants and manufacturers, and urge our example to stimulate their respective governments to secure them against the effects of British competition. Nor have these applications been without effect. In 1817, the American legislature passed an act, copied to the very letter from our famous navigation law, with the avowed intention of its operating as a retaliatory measure against this country; and they have just passed another act, prohibiting, under heavy penalties, all intercourse between the United States and the British West India islands, because, as one of their orators expressed it, 'Great Britain would not allow a cock boat, or any vessel belonging to an American subject, to enter her colonies.' Such are the natural fruits of restrictive regulations!"

"It would have been well, had the retaliatory measures of the Americans stopped here. But the orders in council and the non-intercourse act, having for several years nearly put a total stop to the intercourse between this country and the United States, a *manufacturing interest* grew up in the latter. Had the Americans acted wisely, they would have left this *new interest* to depend on its own resources. But, in humble imitation of 'the wisdom of their ancestors,' they immediately set about fostering and dandling the ricketty bantling; and, to save it from the effect of foreign competition, increased the duties on imported cotton and woollen goods from 12½ to 25 per cent. This increase of duty, or, which is the same thing, this addition of 12½ per cent. to the price of all the cotton and woollen cloths made use of by the American people, not having been found sufficient to protect those rash and improvident speculators who had engaged in a branch of industry which they must have been certain could only exist by means of a monopoly, Congress have favourably entertained a proposal for making so very large an addition to the present duties as will go far to render them prohibitory! Now, we feel perfectly assured, that nothing but the example of Great Britain could ever have induced the American legislature to listen for one moment to so monstrous a proposal. The boundless extent of fertile and unappropriated land in that country, must, for ages to come, render the raising of raw produce the most profitable species of industry in which her citizens can possibly engage. And any attempt to encourage the premature growth of manufactures, by forcing the investment of a very large proportion of the capital of the country in a less productive employment, must occasion a proportionable diminution of the power to accumulate stock, and of the wealth and riches of the community."

The benefits of a free intercourse between England and France are held out in the most alluring manner, and free trade is advocated with a force of reason, that we would suppose certain of success, had we not so often seen that conviction depends on the will.

"This illiberal policy is disadvantageous in many other respects besides being fatal to our commerce. Our open and avowed jealousy of the commercial prosperity of other countries, and the power to which we have attained, excites at once their ill will and their envy; and disposes them as well to manifest an unaccommodating spirit on occasion of any petty quarrel, as to adopt retaliatory measures on our trade. This has been especially the case with France. But, if things were left to their natural course, the connexion between the two countries would be so intimate—the one would constitute so near, so advantageous, and so extensive a market for the produce of the other—that they could not remain long at war without occasioning the most extensively ruinous distress—distress which no government would be willing to inflict on its subjects, and to which, though it were willing, it is probable no people would be disposed to submit. By doing away all restrictions on the trade with France, the two nations would acquire one *common interest*. And we should thus not only cause a prodigiously increased demand for our products, and a proportionable augmentation of the comforts of all classes, but, in a great measure, secure ourselves against the risk of future hostilities. *Les peuples ne s'entrehaïssent jamais;* and we trust the period has now arrived when a selfish and repulsive system of policy will no longer be permitted to

> 'Make enemies of nations, which had else,
> Like kindred drops, been mingled into one.'

"The late glorious revolution in Spain, will not only give additional strength to the cause of freedom in this and every other country; but if we avail ourselves of the opportunity which it presents, it may also be rendered of the very greatest service to our commerce. During the period when Ferdinand was employed in the appropriate task of embroidering petticoats for the Virgin, the Cortes did every thing in their power to promote a free intercourse with this country. No sooner, however, had the Cortes been put down, and the usurper restored, than our cotton goods were strictly excluded from the peninsula; and a duty of from 26 to 43 per cent. imposed on the two finer qualities of our woollens, and of 130 per cent on the inferior qualities. This put an entire stop to the operations of the fair trader. But there is every reason to hope that the Cortes will again return to their former policy; and that a generous and liberal conduct on our part, will be sufficient to give a vastly greater extent to the commerce of Spain.

"But it is not in Europe and America only that the abandonment of the exclusive system would give fresh vigour to commerce. It has been nearly as destructive to our intercourse with the eastern nations, as to that with France and the Baltic. The disadvantages under which our commerce with China is at present carried on, have, it is said, impressed even the practical statesmen of the Board of Trade with a conviction of the necessity of making some partial relaxation in the East India Company's monopoly. But this can be of no material service. If government are really desirous that the surplus produce of this country should find a vent in the

immense market of China, it is indispensably requisite that the freest scope should be given to competition, and that exclusive privilege, granted to any particular class of traders, should be done away. It is certain, indeed, that if the monopoly is not entirely abolished, we shall very soon be deprived of the share we at present possess of the China trade. Notwithstanding every advantage derived from long acquaintance with the Indian seas, and the character and manners of the people, the drawback occasioned by the exclusive system has been so great, that the Americans, whose flag first appeared at Canton so late as 1784, have already completely stript us of all share in the *foreign tea trade;* and, but for the monopoly which the company have acquired of the home market, they would not be able to send out a single ship."

THE HANDSOME AND DEFORMED LEG.

There are two sorts of people in the world, who, with equal degrees of health and wealth, and the other comforts of life, become, the one happy, and the other miserable. This arises very much from the different views in which they consider things, persons and events; and the effect of those different views upon their own minds.

In whatever situation men can be placed, they may find conveniences and inconveniences; in whatever company, they may find persons and conversation more or less pleasing: at whatever table, they may meet with meats and drinks of better and worse taste, dishes better and worse dressed; in whatever climate, they will find good and bad weather; under whatever government, they may find good and bad laws, and good and bad administration of those laws; in whatever poem, or work of genius, they may see faults and beauties; in almost every face, and every person, they may discover fine features and defects, good and bad qualities.

Under these circumstances, the two sorts of people abovementioned fix their attention, those who are disposed to be happy, on the convenience of things, the pleasant parts of conversation, the well dressed dishes, the goodness of the wines, the fine weather, &c. and enjoy all with cheerfulness. Those who are to be unhappy, think and speak only of the contraries. Hence they are continually discontented themselves, and, by their remarks, sour the pleasures of society, offend personally many people, and make themselves every where disagreeable. If this turn of mind was founded in nature, such unhappy persons would be the more to be pitied. But as the disposition to criticise, and to be disgusted, is, perhaps, taken up originally by imitation, and is, unawares, grown into a habit, which, though at present strong, may nevertheless be cured, when those who have it are convinced of its bad effects on their felicity; I hope this little admonition may be of service to them, and put them on changing a habit, which, though in the exercise it is chiefly an act of imagination, yet has serious consequences in life, as it brings on real griefs and misfortunes. For, as many are offended by, and nobody loves this sort of people, no one shows them more than the most common civility and respect, and scarcely that; and this frequently puts them out of humour, and draws them into disputes and contentions. If they aim at obtaining some advantage in rank or fortune, nobody wishes them success, or will stir a step, or speak a word, to favour their pretensions. If they incur public censure or disgrace, no one will defend or excuse, and many join to aggravate their misconduct, and render them completely odious. If these people will not change this bad habit, and condescend to be pleased with what is pleasing, without fretting themselves and others about the contraries, it is good for others to avoid an acquaintance with them; which is always disagreeable, and sometimes very inconvenient, especially when one finds oneself entangled in their quarrels.

An old philosophical friend of mine was grown, from experience, very cautious in this particular, and carefully avoided any intimacy with such people. He had, like other philosophers, a thermometer, to show him the heat of the weather, and a barometer, to mark when it was likely to prove good or bad; but there being no instrument invented to discover, at first sight, this unpleasing disposition in a person, he, for that purpose, made use of his legs; one of which was remarkably handsome, the other, by some accident, crooked and deformed. If a stranger, at the first interview, regarded his ugly leg more than his handsome one, he doubted him. If he spoke of it, and took no notice of the handsome leg, that was sufficient to determine my philosopher to have no further acquaintance with him. Every body has not this two legged instrument; but every one, with a little attention, may observe signs of that carping, fault finding disposition, and take the same resolution of avoiding the acquaintance of those infected with it. I therefore advise those critical, querulous, discontented, unhappy people, that, if they wish to be respected and beloved by others, and happy in themselves, they should *leave off looking at the ugly leg.*

FROM THE ALBANY DAILY ADVERTISER.

TOCKOA FALLS.

Among the natural curiosities of the world, the Tockoa Falls, in Georgia, ought to hold a distinguished place; but hitherto they have been little or scarcely known, except to those who have visited them. Why those, who have taken upon them to designate and describe the wonders of the world, have passed this beautiful and astonishing fall in silence, is to us surprising; and it is more surprising why the Georgians themselves, who so frequently resort to this spot to gaze and admire, should not have given it some more particular notice.

These falls are in Habersham county, in the northeast corner of the state, about 100 miles from Augusta, and 8 or 10 southwest from the Fugalo river. This river and the Kiowee form the Savannah. You pursue the Tockoa creek westwardly in its serpentine path, a mile or two before you approach the fall. The hills on either side of the creek are high, abrupt, and the valley through which it meanders, nearly half a mile in width, is covered with large trees and a beautiful shrubbery. You move along, struck with the scenery, yet in an anxiety so breathless to seize the object of your visit, that the mind has no time to feast upon and admire the beauties that surround you. "It must be there! it must be there!" I exclaimed several times to my guide, pointing where the hills seemed to meet, as we wandered our way along the valley. When you arrive within about three hundred yards of the fall, the valley is shut up, and over the hill (there a solid rock) tumbles the stream you have been tracing, 180 feet perpendicularly! The stream is about 20 to 25 inches in depth. In falling such a distance, the water, of consequence, becomes nearly spray.

About three-fourths of a mile from the fall is the residence of colonel ——, now nearly 100 years of age. He amused us some time with his library, his own writings, his small gallery of paintings, &c. &c. and then walked to show us the wonder. He yet retains the faculties of his mind in all their primary vigour.

A Traveller.

At Dresden, the assassin of the painter Kugeleher, having been detected by a Jew, the latter refused the reward of a thousand crowns, because the Mosaic law forbids the taking *the price of blood.*

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

Change of Seed not necessary to prevent degeneracy; Naturalization of Plants; important Caution to secure permanent good quality of Plants. By J. Cooper, of Gloucester county, New Jersey.

[The following paper on several important agricultural subjects, has already been published in the United States, and in Europe; and has deservedly excited very general attention. The writer is entitled to every degree of respect, both for his practical knowledge, and integrity of relation. His experience and opinions differ widely from those generally received. The results produced, require the care and attention which few will give. The merit of Mr. Cooper is therefore the greater. That both sides of a question, in which agriculturists are highly interested, might fairly appear, the society have thought it right to add to their memoirs, this important development of the practice and success of the writer. And this, not with a view to promote controversy, but to encourage and invite candid inquiry.]

Cooper's Point, April 17th, 1799.

Respected Friend—Kind Providence having placed me in a situation of life, which obliged me to procure a living by industry, and that principally in the agricultural line, it has caused me to be a strict observer of the works of nature, with respect to such parts of the vegetable creation as have come under my particular notice, and have been greatly embarrassed at the opinion very generally entertained by farmers and gardeners, that changing seeds, roots and plants, to distant places, or different soils or climates, is beneficial to agriculture; such opinion not agreeing with my observations or practice. This induced me to make many experiments on that head, all of which, in more than forty years' practice, have operated to prove to my satisfaction, that the above opinion is not well founded, and if so, must be extremely prejudicial to agriculture, as it turns the at-

tention of the husbandman from what appears to me one great object, viz. that of selecting seeds and roots for planting or sowing from such vegetables as come to the greatest perfection, in the soil which he cultivates.

What induced me to make experiments on the subject, was, my observing that all kinds of vegetables were continually varying in their growth, quality, production, and time of maturity. This led me to believe that the great Author of nature, has so constructed that wonderful machine, if I may be allowed the expression, as to incline every kind of soil and climate to naturalize all kinds of vegetables, that it will produce at any rate, the better to suit them, if the agriculturists will do their part in selecting the most proper seed. In support of this position, I will subjoin a few facts and experiments, out of a great number, which have all combined to prove the above to my satisfaction.

In or about the year 1746, my father procured the seeds of the long warty squash, which have been kept on the farm ever since, without changing, and are now far preferable to what they were at first. Our early peas were procured from London, the spring before Braddock's defeat (1756) and have been planted successively every season since, on the same place. They have not been changed, and are now preferable to what they were when first obtained. The seed of our asparagus was procured from New York, in the year 1752, and since that time, I have not planted a seed, except what grew on my beds; and by selecting the seed, from the largest stalks, I have improved it greatly.

A complaint is very general, that potatoes of every kind degenerate, at which I am not surprised, when the most proper means to produce that effect is constantly practised; to wit, using or selling the best, and planting the refuse; by which means, almost the whole of those planted are the produce of plants the most degenerated. This consideration induced me to try an opposite method. Having often observed that some plants or vines produced potatoes larger, better shaped, and in greater abundance than others, without any apparent reason, except the operation of nature, it induced me to save a quantity from such only, for planting the ensuing season, and I was highly gratified in finding their production exceed that of the others, of the same kind, planted at the same time, and with every equal advantage, beyond my expectation, in size, shape, and quantity; by continuing the practice, I am satisfied that I have been fully compensated, for all the additional trouble.

A circumstance happened respecting potatoes, which may be worth relating: a woman whom I met in market, requested me to bring half a bushel of sweet potatoes for seed, the next market day, which I promised to do; but going through the market on that day, previous to her son's coming for the potatoes, I observed the woman selling such as I had brought for her; when the boy came, I asked him the reason they wanted potatoes for seed, while they were selling their own; his answer was, that his father said, if they did not get seed from me, once in three or four years, their potatoes would be good for nothing. Query, if he had used the same means in selecting his potatoes for planting, as I did, whether he would have profited by changing with one who used the other method?

In discoursing with a friend who lived at a great distance from me, on the above subject, he mentioned a fact in favour of changing seed. Some radish seed which he had from me, produced radishes preferable to any thing of the kind ever seen in that neighbourhood, which was near 100 miles distant: but in two or three years the radishes degenerated, so as to be no better than what he had before; I asked his method of saving his seed; he said he had no other radishes in his garden, and when they had pulled what was fit for use, let the others go to seed. I then told him my method, viz. As soon as the radishes are fit for use, I dig up ten or twelve of those which please me best, as to colour, shape, &c. and plant them at least 100 yards from where any others bloom at the time they do; this, I informed him, was the best method I knew of to improve any kind of vegetables, varying the process agreeably to their nature; I asked him if he thought I should be benefited by exchanging with him? his answer was, he believed I was the best gardener.

In or about the year 1772, a friend sent me a few grains of a small kind of Indian corn, the grains of which were not larger than goose shot; he informed me by a note that they were originally from Guinea, and produced from 8 to 10 ears on a stock. Those grains I planted, and found the production to answer the description, but the ears were small, and few of them ripened before frost. I saved some of the largest and earliest, and planted them between rows of the larger and earlier kinds of corn, which produced a mixture to advantage; then I saved seed from stocks that produced the great-

est number of the largest ears, and first ripe, which I planted the ensuing season, and was not a little gratified to find its production preferable, both in quantity and quality, to that of any corn I had ever planted. This kind of corn I have continued to plant ever since, selecting that designed for seed, in the manner I would wish others to try, viz.—When the first ears are ripe enough for seed, gather a sufficient quantity for early corn, or for replanting, and at the time you wish your corn to ripen generally, gather a sufficient quantity for planting the next year, having particular care to take it from stalks, that are large at bottom, of a regular taper, not over tall, the ears set low, and containing the greatest number of good sizeable ears, of the best quality; let it dry speedily, and from this corn, plant your main crop, and if any hills should miss, replant from that first gathered, which will cause the crop to ripen more regularly than is common: this is a great benefit.

The above method I have practised many years, and am satisfied it has increased the quantity, and improved the quality of my crops, beyond the expectation of any person who had not tried the experiment. The distance of planting corn, and the number of grains in a hill, are matters many differ in; perhaps different soils may require a difference in both these respects; but in every kind of soil I have tried, I find planting the rows six feet asunder each way, as nearly at right angles as may be, and leaving not more than four stocks on a hill, produces the best crop. The common method of saving seed corn, by taking the ears from the crib or heap, is attended with two disadvantages, one is, the taking the largest ears, which have generally grown but one on a stock. This lessens the production; the other is, taking ears which have ripened at different times, which causes the production to do the same.

A striking instance of plants being naturalized, happened by colonel Matlack sending some water melon seed from Georgia, which, he informed me by letter, were of superior quality: knowing that seed from vegetables, which had grown in more southern climates, required a longer summer than what grew here, I gave them the most favourable situation, and used glasses to bring them forward, yet very few ripened to perfection; but finding them to be as excellent in quality as described, I saved seed from those first ripe; and by continuing that practice four or five years, they became as early water melons as I ever had.

Many admit the importance of a change of seed, from the fact of foreign flax seed producing the best flax in Ireland; but when it is considered that it is the bark of the stock only that is used in Ireland, and that this is in the best perfection before the seed ripens, the argument fails when applied to other vegetables.

For many years past, I have renewed the whole seed of my winter grain, from a single plant which I have observed to be more productive, and of better quality than the rest; a practice, which I am satisfied, has been of great use; and I am fully of opinion, that all kinds of garden vegetables may be improved by the foregoing methods, particular care being taken, that different kinds of the same species of vegetables are not in bloom at the same time, near together, as by this bad practice, they mix and degenerate.*

I am sensible the foregoing will meet with great opposition and contradiction, but as an experiment is safe and easy, I hope it will induce persons of more leisure, ability, and observation than myself, to make trial, as a mean of improving the agriculture of our country. Such is the sincere wish of thy friend, JOSEPH COOPER.

* The above remark of an observant, practical agriculturist, has so often been confirmed by the observations of others, that no doubt can be entertained of its accuracy. The fact is one of the most powerful proofs of the sexual doctrines of plants, and is strongly confirmed by the familiar example of the certain degeneracy of squashes and pumpkins if grown near gourds; the latter even communicate an emetic quality to their neighbours. In like manner, melons will degenerate if planted near squashes or pumpkins. A case is recorded in the law reports, of an action which was brought against a gardener near London, in the reign of Charles II. for selling cabbage seed instead of cauliflower seed. On trial it appeared, that both had been planted near each other, by the purchaser, and to this error, the gardener contended the degeneracy of the true seed which he had sold, was owing. But he lost his cause in consequence of the prevailing ignorance of the sexual doctrine of plants: posterity however has rescued his memory from the imputation of a cheat. The fact quoted by Mr. William Young in page 53, may be adduced as another argument in favour of the propriety of attending to the caution of Mr. Cooper.

This fact, and the consequences of it, show that lawyers should attend to agricultural and horticultural knowledge, as well as to mere professional acquirements. In an agricultural country, it is peculiarly incumbent on them: both for the purposes of justice, and their personal advantage.—*Memoirs, vol. i.*

☞ *The office of this paper is, for the present, removed to No. 54, South Fourth street.*

NATIONAL RECORDER.

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Miscellany.

From the New Monthly Magazine.

The Fall of Jerusalem: a Dramatic Poem. By the Rev. H. H. Milman.

We regard this as one of the noblest poems of our age. It has more of stern grandeur with more of gentle beauty—more of vast picture for the imagination with more of sweet pathos for the affections—more of the awfulness arising from supernatural horrors with more of the touching loveliness of humanity—than any work of its class which has been produced within our memory. We must, however, lay before our readers a sketch of its plot, and dwell on what appears to us its distinguishing beauties, that we may not be accused of excessive or indiscriminating eulogy.

The subject is the last tremendous catastrophe of the Jewish history of marvels—the total destruction by Titus of the Holy City, after an unparalleled siege, and amidst the most fearful prodigies. In the poem, the events of a considerable period are compressed into the brief space of thirty-six hours—the characters of those leaders by whom the devoted city was ruled are clearly developed, and fictitious persons and incidents, which either heighten the general effect or relieve the gloom, are brought before us on a canvas which is full without confusion. The piece opens in the calm of the evening, when Titus and his soldiers are gazing from the Mount of Olives on the beautiful city which they are about to destroy. The Roman commander feels himself directed by superhuman power to raze the fair towers he would fain spare, and intimates to his companions the strange influences busy at his soul, which he does not understand, but knows to be resistless. Shuddering at his appointed office, he breaks out into this beautiful apostrophe to Salem—which at once sets its magnificence in the loveliest light before us, and deeply affects us with the solemnity of that calamity which is so soon to lay it in the dust.

"It must be—
And yet it moves me, Romans! it confounds
The counsels of my firm philosophy,
That ruin's merciless ploughshare must pass o'er,
And barren salt be sown on yon proud city.
As on our olive crowned hill we stand,
Where Cedron at our feet its scanty waters
Distils from stone to stone with gentle motion,
As through a valley sacred to sweet peace;
How boldly doth it front us! how majestically!
Like a luxurious vineyard, the hill side
Is hung with marble fabrics, line o'er line,
Terrace o'er terrace, nearer still, and nearer,
To the blue heavens. Here bright and sumptuous palaces,
With cool and verdant gardens interspersed;
Here towers of war that frown in massy strength.
While over all hangs the rich purple eve,
As conscious of its being her last farewell
Of light and glory to that fated city.
And as our clouds of battle, dust and smoke,
Are melted into air, behold the Temple,
In undisturbed and lone serenity,
Finding itself a solemn sanctuary
In the profound of heaven! It stands before us
A mount of snow, fretted with golden pinnacles!
The very sun, as if he worshipp'd there,
Lingers upon the gilded cedar roofs,
And down the long and branching porticoes,
On every flowery sculptur'd capital,
Glitters the homage of his parting beams.
By Hercules! the sight might almost win
The offended majesty of Rome to mercy."

After Titus has given orders for the more complete circumvallation of the city, the scene changes to the fountain of Siloe, on which the moonlight is silently falling. Here Javan, who has embraced the doctrines of the despised Nazarene, is waiting for one whom, at the peril of crucifixion, he was accustomed to meet at that hour. It is Miriam—the daughter of the stern Pharisee Simon—who comes down an old and forgotten staircase from the walls, partly indeed with a holy love for the gentle Christian, but chiefly to procure from his hands refreshments to alleviate the famine endured by her father. She, too, is of the divine faith of the Man of Galilee—"a trembling, pale, and melancholy maid," who in her gentleness can overcome the

brutual violence of the ungodly. For two nights he has expected her in vain, and has deplored that he felt not "the music of her footsteps on his spirit." Her voice is heard at a distance calling on Javan, who in the sweet fantasy of fondness exclaims,

"It is her voice! the air is fond of it,
And enviously delays its tender sounds
From the ear that thirsteth for them."

He urges her to fly with him to Pella, where the Christians had taken refuge. She indignantly refuses, and he in his disappointment speaks of his belief that she loved him as a sweet yet faithless dream. This charge draws from her the following most beautiful and touching reply:

"Love thee! I am here,
Here at dead midnight by the fountain's side,
Trusting thee, Javan, with a faith as fearless
As that with which the instinctive infant twines
To its mother's bosom.—Love thee! when the sounds
Of massacre are round me, when the shouts
Of frantic men in battle rack the soul
With their importunate and jarring din,
Javan, I think on thee, and am at peace.
Our famished maidens gaze on me, and see
That I am famished like themselves, as pale,
With lips as parched, and eyes as wild, yet I
Sit patient with an enviable smile
On my wan cheeks, for then my spirit feasts
Contented on its pleasing thoughts of thee."

This sweet maiden, when Javan speaks with horror of her father as the bloodiest ruler of the city, declares her resolution to cleave to him till death, and even because all others hate him, to strive by her love to "make up to his forlorn and desolate heart the forfeited affections of his kind." She quits him, bearing with her her pious load of wine and fruit for Simon. In the next scene we find her in the house of her father, solacing herself with gentle thoughts and tender recollections of the days when she was wont to thread in sport the secret passage, now used for excursions so momentous and fearful. Her sister Salone appears—a high souled Jewish damsel, whose imaginations grow more fervent as the danger increases, who seems intoxicated by extravagant fantasy, and boasts of the "rapturous disturbances" which break her haunted slumbers. She tells in lofty strain of nightly visitations which "break on her gifted sight more golden bright than the rich morn on Carmel," and of sounds of unearthly sweetness floating through the house of Simon, when all around are shrieks, and moaning, and preparations for battle. When Miriam tenderly attributes her strange visions to her having fasted for two long days, she indignantly charges her with a belief in the crucified, vows to tear from her soul "all memory of their youthful pleasant hours, their blended sports, and tasks, and joys, and sorrows," and to proclaim her as an apostate and a traitress. While Miriam is weeping at this unsisterly threat, Simon enters, and tells of his stern search for secreted provisions. Happily in this sad narrative he describes two sleeping infants, and the picture so affects Salone that she cannot betray her sister. After Simon has retired, she exclaims—

"O Miriam! I dare not tell him now!
For even as those two infants lay together,
Nestling their sleeping faces on each other,
Even so we two have lain, and I have felt
Thy breath upon my face, and every motion
Of thy soft bosom answering to mine own."

Simon speedily returns, having found the wine and food, which he believes were brought by some favouring angel. Miriam dares not undeceive him, lest he should dash the refreshment from him as accursed, and perish in his sins. She herself does not taste them, but, to avoid uniting in his thanksgiving, retires, and consoles herself with a noble hymn on the birth and lowly humanity of him on whom her spirit is leaning.

Morning now breaks, and Simon anxiously yet hopefully looks out to see if the sky gives signal of the approaching deliverance of his country. That which in Salone is the dream of imagination drunken by mingled wretchedness and ardour, is in him a firm and moveless trust. The lustful John, Amariah his daring and enthusiastic son, Eleazar, and the high priest, burst in on his meditation, and a scene of scoffing and reproach ensues between John and Simon, which is broken by the Roman horn sounding a parley. The chiefs hasten to the walls, where Titus addressed them with offers of mercy on surrender. John answers him only with bitter taunts and reviling. But Simon, indignant at the low mockery of his colleague, pours out on the Gentile a sublime strain of denunciation, in which every line teems with fearful imagery, and his soul seems labouring with thoughts too vast for expression. After allowing Rome's stupendous power, and representing it as feeble before the Lord, who had portioned and sealed to his countrymen their sacred land, he exclaims—

"Haughty Gentile!
Even now ye walk on ruin and on prodigy.
The air ye breathe is heavy and o'ercharged

With your dark gathering doom; and if our earth
Do yet, in its disdain, endure the footing
Of your arm'd legions, 'tis because it labours
With silent throes of expectation, waiting
The signal of your scattering. Lo! the mountains
Bend o'er you with their huge and lowering shadows,
Ready to rush and overwhelm: the winds
Do listen, panting for the tardy presence
Of Him that shall avenge. And there is scorn,
Yea, there is laughter in our fathers' tombs,
To think that heathen conqueror doth aspire
To lord it over God's Jerusalem!
Yea, in hell's deep and desolate abode,
Where dwell the perish'd kings, the chief of earth;
They whose idolatrous warfare erst assail'd
The Holy City and the chosen people;
They wait for thee, the associate of their hopes
And fatal fall, to join their ruin'd conclave.
He whom the Red Sea whelm'd with all his host,
Pharaoh the Egyptian; and the Kings of Canaan;
The Philistine; the Dagon worshipper;
Moab, and Edom, and fierce Amalek;
And he of Babylon, whose multitudes,
Even on the hills where gleam your myriad spears,
In one brief night the invisible Angel swept
With the dark and noiseless shadow of his wing,
And morn beheld the fierce and riotous camp
One cold, and mute, and tombless cemetry;
Sennacherib; all, all are risen, are mov'd;
Yea, they take up the taunting song of welcome
To him who, like themselves, hath madly warr'd
'Gainst Zion's walls, and miserably fallen
Before the avenging God of Israel."

This speech animates the Jews with fresh courage, and they call on Simon to lead them to certain victory. Joseph, the captive, addresses to them an energetic and affectionate warning, in which he unmasks their delusion, and entreats them to yield, but is answered only by a javelin from the hand of Amariah, which wounds him. This outrage effaces the last emotions of pity from the heart of Titus, and he resigns himself entirely to the awful impulse which urges him to execute the vengeance of heaven. Salone, madly desirous to gaze on the combat, mounts the wall, and gives to Miriam a magnificent description of the furious contest, in which Amariah, whom she frantically loves, performs feats of astonishing but successless valour. While she continues to gaze on the spectacle, by which she is so strangely fascinated, her sister joins a train of maidens proceeding to offer prayers at the temple, resolved herself there to call on the Messiah for succour. A choral hymn is then chaunted by the melancholy virgins, describing the old deliverances which God wrought out for their fathers, and imploring him again to drive back the heathen. The leaders, discomfited and beaten back within their last wall, rush in and renew their altercations, until they are interrupted by the high priest, who declares the temple polluted by the utterance of the name of Christ within its sanctuaries. Salone, who is present, immediately knows that her sister is the criminal, and after a struggle with old love and gentle recollections of childhood, rushes forward to denounce her, and stands unveiled in the midst of the crowd. Her appearance, however, gives a new turn to the people's thoughts. Abiram, the false prophet, rapturously counsels an immediate marriage between the daughter of Simon and the son of John, which may heal the animosities of the leaders. The proposal is agreed to; Simon anticipates the springing of the Messiah from the union, conceived in the extreme agony of the chosen people. While they resign themselves to frightful joy, Miriam seeks the fountain of Siloe, over which a storm is brooding. After some sweet misgivings that she finds not Javan there, and sweet self reproaches for her momentary doubt, she sees him through the gloom. In vain he urges her again to fly with him—in vain he applies scripture to aid his hopes—she nobly repels his sophistry, and resolves to perform her undoubted duty in cleaving to the last to her devoted father. He yields in fond admiration—they feel that this is probably their last hour of meeting on earth, and Miriam addresses him, to whom hitherto she has been chary of her tenderness, with this most affecting language:

"Javan, one last, one parting word with thee:—
There have been times when I have said light words,
As maidens use, that made thy kind heart bleed;
There have been moments when I have seen thee sad,
And I have cruelly sported with thy sadness;
I have been proud, oh! very proud to hear
Thy fond lips dwell on beauty, when thy eyes
Were on this thin and wasted form of mine.
Forgive me, oh! forgive me, for I deemed
The hour would surely come, when the fond bride
Might well repay the maiden's waywardness."

Meanwhile an awful calm prevails on earth and in heaven, and the festive lamps for the bridal are gleaming from the wretched city. The lovers part, and the scene changes to the interior of the walls, where the affrighted Jews are crowding together to gaze on the prodigies which heaven and earth exhibit. Amidst these horrors, the

gentle voicings of the marriage train are heard from the house of Simon, where the bridegroom decks his chamber. These are fearfully broken by the voice of Joshua son of Hannaniah, who for seven years has cried wo to Salem. With his inspired denunciations the sweet notes of the bridal festivity mingle, and he rushes out to accomplish his last prophecy and to die. The high priest rushes in affrighted, and tells how he has heard a sound from the holy of holies, of mingled grief and anger, but not human, "as if the hoarse and rolling thunder spake with the articulate voice of man," which said "Let us depart." Again the hymn of youths and maidens swells on the air, and again is interrupted by fresh horror—the terrible tale of the mother who served up her child to the soldiers! John and Simon come in jocund from the banquet which the piety of Miriam had provided, and depart to rest and "dream upon the coming honours of to-morrow." All now is silent as a sepulchre—Miriam alone traverses the streets—when the crashing of the engines bursts on her ear, the thunder peals from the heavens, and the trampling of the foe is heard in the city. The Jews flock amazedly to the temple—Simon raises their spirits, and declares that now the supernatural deliverance is at hand. Miriam, staggering through the streets, and seeking death in vain, meets an old man who was a spectator of the crucifixion of Christ, and cried out "his blood be on us and on our children," who believes in him whom he cursed, and feels that belief an "agony that cleaves to him in death." As this wretched being leaves her, she finds herself before the dwelling of her fathers, now in flames, and sees Salone bursting from it "with the unfaded crown hanging from her loose tresses," and for her raiment only the bridal veil wrapt round her. A fearful scene ensues; Amariah, roused from the bridal couch, has seen the capture of the city, and returned to stab his bride, in order to secure her from the Gentiles; she, unconscious of the death-wound, calls only for her husband, but soon awakens from her dream of joy to die. While Miriam is absorbed in grief for this sad end of the partner of her childhood, a soldier grasps and leads her away as she exclaims to the body of Salone, "Oh that thou hadst room in thy cold marriage bed for me!"

The scene now changes to the front of the temple, where Simon yet waits, though John is prisoner and Amariah slain, in the expectation of heavenly aid, and mistakes the broad red glare of the burning sanctuary for a celestial visitation to succour. Titus advances—calls out in vain to spare the temple—takes Simon prisoner, who now, in the fire that rends the veil, recognises the symbol of God's desertion of the rebellious people of Judah. Meantime the soldier conducts Miriam to the well known fountain of Siloe, and there, when she implores him to sacrifice her on any other spot, discovers himself to be her faithful Javan. The temple blazes, "and wears its ruin with a majesty peculiar and divine." Encircled by Christians, the lovers now, in safety, look awe stricken on the tremendous accomplishment of prophecy. A hymn, in which the sublime destruction is described as the type and image of the ruin of the vast temple of the universe, majestically closes the poem.

Feebly and imperfectly as we have sketched the outline of this work, we have, we think, done enough to justify the admiration which we have expressed for its beauties. Destiny, which gives so sublime a composure to the Greek tragedies, is here supplied by a higher principle—the necessary fulfilment of old and divine prophecy, which imparts an unearthly colouring to all the vast and strange incidents of which we are made spectators. The characters are of the grandest cast. Simon, the stern zealot, the imaginative man of blood,—John the reckless Sadducee, whose spirit of daring luxury is sublime,—the youthful and impetuous Amariah,—the gentle Miriam, whose character sweetens the whole,—and the half frantic enthusiast Salone, in whom the ancient Jewish spirit seems burning most brightly at the last, whose agonies inspire, and whose death is festal! Can any thing be more nobly conceived than the hurried nuptials of Amariah and his bride—the wild rapture while foes surround, famine rages, and heaven threatens, which aids the fitful enthusiasm bordering on despair? What can be more awful than the sounds of bridal revelry heard as the horror thickens, which break on tales of fresh atrocity, danger, or suffering? Here is genius consecrated to its noblest uses. We hail the effort to employ the divinest of human faculties on sacred themes, and we rejoice thus to record its complete success.

On British Novels and Romances, introductory to a series of Criticisms on the Living Novelists.

We regard the authors of the best novels and romances as among the truest benefac-

tors of their species. Their works have often conveyed, in the most attractive form, lessons of the deepest and most genial wisdom. But we do not prize them so much in reference to their immediate aim, or any individual traits of nobleness with which they may inform the thoughts, as for their general tendency to break up that cold and debasing selfishness with which the souls of so large a portion of mankind are encrusted. They give to a vast class, who by no other means would be carried beyond the most contracted range of emotion, an interest in things out of themselves, and a perception of grandeur and of beauty, of which otherwise they might ever have lived unconscious. Pity for fictitious sufferings is, indeed, very inferior to that sympathy with the universal heart of man, which inspires real self sacrifice; but it is better even to be moved by its tenderness, than wholly to be ignorant of the joy of natural tears. How many are there for whom poesy has no charm, and who have derived only from romances those glimpses of disinterested heroism, and ideal beauty, which alone "make them less forlorn," in their busy career! The good housewife, who is employed all her life in the severest drudgery, has yet some glimmerings of a state and dignity above her station and age, and some dim vision of meek, angelic suffering, when she thinks of the well thumbed volume of Clarissa Harlowe, which she found, when a girl, in some old recess, and read, with breathless eagerness, at stolen times, and moments of hasty joy. The careworn lawyer or politician, encircled with all kinds of petty anxieties, thinks of the Arabian Nights Entertainments, which he devoured in his joyful school days, and is once more young, and innocent, and happy. If the sternest puritan were acquainted with Parson Adams, or with Dr. Primrose, he could not hate the clergy. If novels are not the deepest teachers of humanity, they have at least, the widest range. They lend to genius "lighter wings to fly." They are read where Milton and Shakspeare are only talked of, and where even their names are never heard. They nestle gently beneath the covers of unconscious sophas, are read by fair and glistening eyes, in moments snatched from repose; and beneath counters and shopboards, minister delights "secret, sweet, and precious." It is possible that, in particular instances, their effects may be baneful; but, on the whole, we are persuaded they are good. The world is not in danger of becoming too romantic. The golden threads of poesy are not too thickly or too closely interwoven with the ordinary web of existence. Sympathy is the first great lesson which man should learn. It will be ill for him if he proceeds no farther; if his emotions are but excited to roll back on his heart, and to be fostered in luxurious quiet. But unless he learns to feel tenderly and deeply for things in which he has no personal interest, he can achieve nothing generous or noble. This lesson is in reality the universal moral of all excellent romances. How mistaken are those miserable reasoners, who object to them as giving false pictures of life—of purity too glossy and ethereal—of friendship too deep and confiding—of love which does not shrink at the approach of ill, but "looks on tempests and is never shaken,"—because with these the world too rarely blossoms! Were these things visionary and unreal, who would break the spell, and bid the delicious enchantment vanish? The soul will not be the worse for thinking too well of its kind, or believing that the highest excellence is within the reach of its exertions. But these things are not unreal; they are shadows, indeed, in themselves; but they are shadows cast from objects stately, grand, and eternal. Man can never imagine that which has no foundation in his nature. The virtues, he conceives, are not the mere pageantry of his thought. We feel their truth—not their historic or individual truth—but their universal truth, as reflexes of human energy and power. It would be enough for us to prove that the imaginative glories, which are shed around our being, are far brighter than "the light of common day," which mere vulgar experience in the course of the world diffuses. But in truth, that radiance is not merely of the fancy, nor are its influences lost when it ceases immediately to shine on our path. It is holy and prophetic. The deep joys of childhood—its boundless aspirations and gorgeous dreams, are the sure indications of the nobleness of its final heritage. All the softenings of evil to the moral vision by the gentleness of fancy, are proofs that evil itself shall perish. Our yearnings after ideal beauty show that the home of the soul which feels them, is in a lovelier world. And when man describes high virtues, and instances of nobleness, which rarely light on earth, so sublime that they expand our imaginations beyond their former compass, yet so intensely human that they make our hearts gush with delight; he discovers feelings in his own breast, and awakens sympathies in ours, which shall assuredly one day have real and stable objects to rest on!

The early times of England—unlike those of Spain—were not rich in chivalrous romances. The imagination seems to have been chilled by the manners of the Norman conquerors. The domestic contests for the disputed throne, with their intrigues, battles, and executions, have none of that rich, poetical interest, which attended the struggles for the holy sepulchre. Nor, in the golden age of English genius, were there any very remarkable works of pure fiction. Since that period to the present day, however, there has been a rich succession of novels and romances, each increasing the stores of innocent delight, and shedding on human life some new tint of tender colouring.

The novels of Richardson are at once among the grandest and most singular creations of human genius. They combine an accurate acquaintance with the freest libertinism, and the sternest professions of virtue—a sporting with vicious casuistry, and the deepest horror of free thinking—the most stately ideas of paternal authority, and the most elaborate display of its abuses. Prim and stiff, almost without parallel, the author perpetually treads on the very borders of indecorum, but with a solemn and assured step, as if certain that he could never fall. "The precise, straight laced Richardson," says Mr. Lamb, in one of the profound and beautiful notes to his specimens, "has strengthened vice from the mouth of Lovelace, with entangling sophistries, and the abstruse pleas against her adversary virtue, which Sedley, Villiers, and Rochester, wanted depth of libertinism sufficient to have invented." He had, in fact, the power of making any set of notions, however fantastical, appear as "truths of holy writ" to his readers. This he did by the authority with which he disposed of all things, and by the infinite minuteness of his details. His gradations are so gentle, that we do not at any one point, hesitate to follow him, and should descend with him to any depth before we perceived that our path had been unequal. By the means of this strange magic, we become anxious for the marriage of Pamela with her base master; because the author has so imperceptibly wrought on us the belief of an awful distance between the rights of an esquire and his servant, that our imaginations regard it in the place of moral distinctions. After all, the general impression made on us by his works, is virtuous. Clementina is to the soul a new and majestic image, inspired by virtue and by love, which raises and refines its conceptions. She has all the depth and intensity of the Italian character, with all the purity of an angel. She is at the same time the grandest of tragic heroines, and the divinest of religious enthusiasts. Clarissa alone is above her. Clementina steps stately in her very madness, amidst "the pride, pomp, and circumstance" of Italian nobility; Clarissa is triumphant, though violated, deserted, and encompassed by vice and infamy. Never can we forget that amazing scene, in which, on the effort of her mean seducer to renew his outrages, she appears in all the radiance of mental purity, among the wretches assembled to witness his triumph, where she startles them by her first appearance, as by a vision from above; and holding the penknife to her breast, with her eyes lifted to heaven, prepares to die, if her craven destroyer advances, striking the vilest with the deep awe of goodness, and walking placidly, at last, from the circle of her foes, none of them daring to harm her! How pathetic, above all other pathos in the world, are those snatches of meditation which she commits to paper, in the first delirium of her wo! How delicately imagined are her preparations for that grave in which alone she can find repose! Cold must be the hearts of those who can conceive them as too elaborate, or who can venture to criticise them. In this novel all appears most real; we feel enveloped, like Don Quixote, by a thousand threads; and, like him, would we rather remain so for ever, than break one of their silken fibres. Clarissa Harlowe is one of the few books which leave us different beings from those which they find us. "Sadder and wiser" do we arise from its perusal.

Yet when we read Fielding's novels after those of Richardson, we feel as if a stupendous pressure were removed from our souls. We seem suddenly to have left a palace of enchantment, where we have passed through long galleries filled with the most gorgeous images, and illuminated by a light not quite human nor yet quite divine, into the fresh air, and the common ways of this "bright and breathing world." We travel on the high road of humanity, yet meet in it pleasanter companions, and catch more delicious snatches of refreshment, than ever we can hope elsewhere to enjoy. The mock heroic of Fielding, when he condescends to that ambiguous style, is scarcely less pleasing than its stately prototype. It is a sort of spirited defiance to fiction, on the behalf of reality, by one who knew full well all the strong holds of that nature which he was defending. There is not in Fielding much of that which can properly

be called ideal—if we except the character of Parson Adams; but his works represent life as more delightful than it seems to common experience, by disclosing those of its dear immunities, which we little think of, even when we enjoy them. How delicious are all his refreshments at all his inns! How vivid are the transient joys which he depicts—how sweet the resting places of his heroes, in their chequered course—how full and overflowing are their final raptures! His Tom Jones is quite unrivalled in plot, and is to be rivalled only in his own works for felicitous delineations of character. The little which we have told us of Allworthy, especially that which relates to his feelings respecting his deceased wife, makes us feel for him, as for one of the best and most revered friends of our childhood. Was ever the "soul of goodness in things evil" better disclosed, than in the scruples and the dishonesty of Black George, that tenderest of game keepers and truest of thieves? Did ever health, good humour, frank heartedness, and animal spirits, hold out so freshly against vice and fortune as in the hero? Was ever so plausible a hypocrite as Blifil, who buys a Bible of Tom Jones so delightfully, and who, by his admirable imitation of virtue, leaves it almost in doubt, whether, by a counterfeit so dexterous, he did not merit some share of her rewards? Who shall gainsay the cherry lips of Sophia Western? The story of lady Bellaston we confess to be a blemish. But if there be any vice left in the work, the fresh atmosphere diffused over all its scenes, will render it innoxious. Joseph Andrews has far less merit as a story—but it depicts Parson Adams, whom it does the heart good to think on. He who drew this character, if he had done nothing else, would not have lived in vain. We fancy we can see him with his torn cassock (in honour of this high profession,) his volumes of sermons, which we really wish had been printed, and his Eschylus, the best of all the editions of that sublime tragedian! Whether he longs after his own sermons against vanity—or is absorbed in the romantic tale of the fair Leonora—or uses his ox-like fists in defence of the fairer Fanny, he equally embodies in his person "the homely beauty of the good old cause," of high thoughts, pure imagination, and manners unspotted by the world.

Smollet seems to have had more touch of romance than Fielding, but not so profound and intuitive a knowledge of humanity's hidden treasures. There is nothing in his works comparable to Parson Adams; but then, on the other hand, Fielding has not any thing of the kind equal to Strap. Partridge is dry and hard, compared with this poor barber boy, with his generous overflowings of affection. Roderick Random, indeed, with its varied delineation of life, is almost a romance. Its hero is worthy of his name. He is the sport of fortune, rolled about through the "many ways of wretchedness" almost without resistance, but ever catching those tastes of joy which are every where to be relished by those who are willing to receive them. We seem to roll on with him, and get delectably giddy in his company.

The humanity of the Vicar of Wakefield is less deep even than that of Roderick Random, but sweeter tinges of fancy are cast over it. The sphere in which Goldsmith's powers moved, was never very extensive, but within it he discovered all that was good, and shed on it the tenderest lights of his sympathizing genius. No one ever excelled so much as he in depicting amiable follies, and endearing weaknesses. His satire makes us at once smile at, and love, all that he so tenderly ridicules. The good Vicar's trust in Monogamy; his son's purchase of the spectacles; his own sale of his horse to his solemn admirer at the fair; the blameless vanities of his daughters, and his resignation under his accumulated sorrows, are among the best treasures of memory. The pastoral scenes in this exquisite tale are the sweetest in the world. The scents of the hay field, and of the blossoming hedge rows, seem to come freshly to our senses. The whole romance is a tenderly coloured picture, in little, of human nature's most genial qualities.

De Foe is one of the most extraordinary of English authors. His Robinson Crusoe is deservedly one of the most popular of novels. It is usually the first read, and always among the last forgotten. The interest of its scenes in the uninhabited island is altogether peculiar; since there is nothing to develop the character but deep solitude. Man, there, is alone in the world, and can hold communion only with nature, and nature's God. There is nearly the same situation in Philoctetes, that sweetest of the Greek tragedies; but there we only see the poor exile as he is about to leave his sad abode, to which he has become attached, even with a childlike cleaving. In Robinson Crusoe, life is stripped of all its social joys, yet we feel how worthy of cherishing it is, with nothing but silent nature to cheer it. Thus are nature and the soul, left with no other solace, represented in their native grandeur

and intense communion. With how fond an interest do we dwell on all the exertions of our fellow man, cut off from his kind; watch his growing plantations as they rise, and seem to water them with our tears! The exceeding vividness of all the descriptions are more delightful when combined with the loneliness and distance of the scene, "placed far amid the melancholy main" in which we become dwellers. We have grown so familiar with the solitude, that the print of man's foot seen in the sand seems to appal us as an awful thing! The Family Instructor of this author, in which he inculcates weightly his own notions of puritanical demeanour and parental authority, is very curious. It is a strange mixture of narrative and dialogue, fanaticism and nature; but all done with such earnestness, that the sense of its reality never quits us. Nothing, however, can be more harsh and unpleasing than the impression which it leaves. It does injustice both to religion and the world. It represents the innocent pleasures of the latter as deadly sins, and the former as most gloomy, austere, and exclusive. One lady resolves on poisoning her husband, and another determines to go to the play, and the author treats both offences with a severity nearly equal!

Far different from this ascetic novel is that best of religious romances, the Fool of Quality. The piety there is at once most deep and most benign. There is much indeed of eloquent mysticism, but all evidently most heartfelt and sincere. The yearnings of the soul after universal good and intimate communion with the divine nature were never more nobly shown. The author is most prodigal of his intellectual wealth: "his bounty is as boundless as the sea—his love as deep." He gives to his chief characters riches endless as the spiritual stores of his own heart. It is, indeed, only the last which gives value to the first in his writings. It is easy to endow men with millions on paper, and to make them willing to scatter them among the wretched; but it is the corresponding bounty and exuberance of the author's soul, which here makes the money sterling, and the charity divine. The hero of this romance always appears to our imagination like a radiant vision encircled with celestial glories. The stories introduced in it are delightful exceptions to the usual rule by which such incidental tales are properly regarded as impertinent intrusions. That of David Doubtful is of the most romantic interest, and at the same time steeped in feeling the most profound. But that of Clement and his wife is perhaps the finest. The scene in which they are discovered, having placidly lain down to die of hunger together, in gentle submission to heaven, depicts a quiescence the most sublime, yet the most affecting. Nothing can be more delightful than the sweetening ingredients in their cup of sorrow. The heroic act of the lady to free herself from her ravisher's grasp, her trial and her triumphant acquittal, have a grandeur above that of tragedy. The genial spirit of the author's faith, leads him to exult especially in the repentance of the wicked. No human writer seems ever to have hailed the contrite with so cordial a welcome. His scenes appear overspread with a rich atmosphere of tenderness, which softens and consecrates all things.

We would not pass over, without a tribute of gratitude, Mrs. Radcliffe's wild and wondrous tales. When we read them, the world seems shut out, and we breathe only in an enchanted region, where lovers' lutes tremble over placid waters, mouldering castles rise conscious of deeds of blood, and the sad voices of the past echo through deep vaults and lonely galleries. There is always majesty in her terrors. She produces more effect by whispers and slender hints than ever was attained by the most vivid display of horrors. Her conclusions are tame and impotent almost without example. But while her spells actually operate, her power is truly magical. Who can ever forget the scene in the Romance of the Forest, where the Marquis, who has long sought to make the heroine the victim of licentious love, after working on her protector, over whom he has a mysterious influence, to steal at night into her chamber, and when his trembling listener expects only a requisition for delivering her into his hands, replies to the question of "then—to-night, my Lord!" "Adelaide *dies*"—or the allusions to the dark veil in the Mysteries of Udolpho—or the stupendous scenes in Spalatro's cottage? Of all romance writers, Mrs. Radcliffe is the most romantic.

The present age has produced a singular number of authors of delightful prose fiction, on whom we intend to give a series of criticisms. We shall begin with Mackenzie, whom we shall endeavour to compare with Sterne; and for this reason we have passed over the works of the latter in our present cursory view of the novelists of other days.

(*To be continued.*)

From the New York Literary Journal.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

NO. IV.

Having devoted my previous numbers to the consideration of classical learning in the United States, I shall, in the present, give a concise sketch of the course of instruction which is pursued in some of the most celebrated institutions in Great Britain. It is taken from the work of Mr. Russel, already referred to, which contains much interesting information on this subject. I shall begin with

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.

The different forms or classes, in this celebrated seminary, are divided into two schools, called the under and the upper school. The *under* comprises all the forms from the petty to the upper third; the *upper*, all from the under fourth to the seventh.

In the petty form the boys will learn for six, or perhaps twelve months, the first rudiments of the Latin grammar. They then pass into the under part of the first form, in which they are taught the rules of syntax; which, having acquired, they are placed in the upper part of the first form, and there they read Selectæ e Profanis, Cornelius Nepos, and have given to them small syntactical exercises to arrange. After being one year in the second classes of the first form, they spend one or more in the second classes of the second. Here they go on in committing to memory all the rules of the Westminster Latin grammar, reading Phœdrus, and acquiring the elementary parts of prosody. This year being finished, they pass into the third form; in the under part of which they learn to make *nonsense* verses, translate Ovid's metamorphoses, turn little sacred pieces into Latin; and in the upper class of this form they turn the Psalms into Latin verse, and continue the study of Ovid.

This finishes their education in the under schools, in which they have now been three years and a half, and they are next moved into the upper, and probably at the age of ten or eleven; six or seven being the age at which boys are generally sent into the petty form. In the under part of the fourth form they begin the Greek grammar; write two themes in the week, one Latin, the other English; and on Saturday, turn some sacred pieces into Latin verse, to be given to the master on Monday morning. Here, also, they begin the Æneid. In the upper part of the form they continue the same course of studies, with the addition of reading the short epigrams in the Anthologia. They then proceed to the fifth form, in which their course of reading is nearly the same, except that, in the upper part, they read the first book of the Iliad, translate parts of the Old Testament into Latin verse. They next go into the *shell*, where their studies are composed of writing two themes in the week; writing two copies of verses in the week, reading Homer, Virgil, Horace, and Martial. In the sixth form, the same number of exercises in verse and prose composition are required as in the shell; and here the Odyssey, the Greek tragedians, Horace, Juvenal, Livy, Grotius, are the principal classical books made use of. In the seventh form the reading is the same as in the sixth, with the addition of the Hebrew Grammar and Psalter.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.

The year is divided into three terms, and the following, with some slight modifications, is the course pursued in each.

First year.

1st Term—A Greek play and Euclid.
2d Term—A Greek prose author, algebra, and arithmetic.
3d Term—Some Latin author, and plane trigonometry.

Second year.

1st Term—Mechanics.
2d Term—Spherical trigonometry, conic sections, the gospel of St. Luke, Locke, and Paley.
3d Term—Astronomy.

Thus ends the two first years; and the student is now prepared to enter the vestibule of the Principia of Newton.

Third year.

From this epoch, his application becomes more intense. The Principia of Newton, methods of fluxion, and increments, higher parts of algebra, arithmetic of sines. Optics and hydrostatics are not included in the collegiate course at Trinity, but are left to be prepared by private study.

The following university prizes are annually given, for which all under-graduates may become competitors.

1. A gold medal for the first Greek ode (Sapphic).

2. Do. for the best Latin ode after the manner of Horace.

3. A gold medal for a pair of epigrams; one Greek, after the manner of the Anthologia; the other Latin, after the manner of Martial.

4. A prize, value 15 pounds, for the best dissertation on some subject connected with the evidences of Christianity.

It is well known that at this university the mathematics are much more assiduously cultivated than classical literature. Our author remarks, "that the predilection for mathematical merit is clearly shown in the distribution of the fellowships, and other preferments, in the gift of this opulent seat of learning. It occasionally, though rarely, happens, that persons of transcendant classical attainments, without any mathematical knowledge, are elected fellows."

It is almost unnecessary to offer any comments upon the foregoing outline. It proves beyond a doubt, the high value that is attached to classical literature in England, and at the same time shows that her classical scholars are rather created at her schools, than at her universities.

It is an imitation of this system, or at least an approximation to it, that I would recommend to this country, well convinced that until something like this is adopted, we shall never be able to boast of a race of finished scholars, to advance and refine our literature, and exalt our reputation.

FROM THE PORT FOLIO.

Some Account of the Orphan Society at Philadelphia.

Fairest and foremost of the train that wait
On man's most dignified and happiest state,
We name thee *Charity!* *Cowper.*

The Philadelphia Orphan Society was founded in the year 1814, by a number of ladies, who having formed a constitution and procured a temporary asylum, were so liberally seconded by the public, that they were encouraged to apply to the proper authority for an act of incorporation. A charter was promptly granted, and a permanent edifice for the purposes of the society erected, in the year 1816, on a lot, at the corner of Cherry and Schuylkill Fifth streets, granted by four gentlemen of this city: namely, Samuel Wetherill, Samuel Richards, Samuel Archer, and Robert Ralston. The Orphan House was constructed under the superintendence of the benevolent donors of the site. It occupies an area of fifty by fifty-three feet. It is three stories high, exclusive of a basement story and garret, and is capable of accommodating from two hundred and fifty to three hundred children. The entrance, from a portico in front, leads the visiter into a chapel, from which two large folding doors open into two rooms, one of which is a committee room for the use of the managers, and the other is a matron's parlour. The basement story is divided into four apartments, viz. a school-room, nursery, dining-room, and kitchen. Each of the upper stories contains four chambers, communicating with each other. The whole is finished in a style of neatness and frugality which is at once worthy of the design, and sufficiently elegant to be a fit ornament for a flourishing metropolis and a monument of the judicious liberality of its patrons. In the furniture of the rooms, there is an attention even to minuteness to the wants and comforts of their juvenile tenants. With this commendable view, as well as to employ the children in the healthful and useful exercise of gardening, the managers have added to their donation of ninety feet, an adjoining piece of ground of forty feet. The whole therefore gives a front of 130 feet and a depth of 134. The expense of ground, building and furniture, is estimated at 27,000 dollars. The general interests of the institution are committed to twenty-four managers, who are elected annually; and the domestic concerns are entrusted to a matron, a housekeeper and a schoolmistress. Eighty-three children are at present supported on this foundation, and the annual expense is three thousand dollars. To the healthy situation of the Orphan House, the salutary regulations of the managers, and the unwearied attention of their officers, must be attributed, under Providence, the remarkable circumstance that only four children have died in the institution.

The Lancasterian system has been adopted, and the improvement of the children answers the expectation of the managers They are taught to read, write, cipher, sew and knit; and the girls assist in the house work. The boys likewise knit; little creatures from five to six years of age are there seen performing this very useful art with the utmost care and assiduity. From this branch of industry the society, in the year 1819, obtained 566 pairs of stockings, mittens and suspenders, as we learn from the last annual report.

Whilst the great number of our charitable institutions has often occasioned the question, whether our bounty does not defeat its object, by encouraging the idle to depend on the public for support, it is a pleasure to behold one whose utility cannot be questioned by the most sceptical reasoners. Not only does the Orphan Society provide an asylum for those helpless creatures who cannot labour, and whose innocence must exempt them from the charge of having brought poverty upon themselves, but it is a seminary for the useful education of persons not less necessary to our social comfort than any other class of the community. The boys are to be apprenticed to farmers or tradesmen, and the girls are designed for house servants in respectable families. The measures pursued to prepare them for these purposes afford a practical demonstration of the good sense of the managers, whilst the admirable attention that is paid to their present comfort and health proclaims their useful benevolence.

Yet it is an act of justice to state, that even their judicious plans could not have brought the institution to its present perfection, without the efficient co-operation of the officers of the household. We believe, we are only expressing the pious sentiments of these exemplary ladies, when we ascribe to the gracious direction of a favouring Providence, the selection of a matron, whose uncommon qualifications for her very arduous station are perceptible in every department of her duties. The beautiful order and neatness of the whole house, the singular healthfulness of so many children, their progress in useful learning, and the very moderate expense at which the institution is support-

ed, reflect honour alike on the talents of the officers, and the prudence and assiduity of the ladies to whom the superintendence of the establishment has been confided.

Although it may justly be lamented that so inconsiderable a portion of that wealth which has been bestowed in vast abundance on this growing country is devoted to the interests of literature and the fine arts, to improve the intellectual strength of its citizens, to cherish and direct that universal taste for books which is the characteristic of an American, we may yet speak with complacency of the benevolent societies of our infant land. They rise up to our praise in every part of the union; the country, the village, and the city, are reaping the blessed fruit of these institutions, and we may fervently exclaim with the most moral poet of his age,

——— how copious and how clear
The o'erflowing well of charity springs here!

Independently of the good which results to the immediate objects of their care, charitable societies have the most benign influence on the community at large. They carry with them their own reward. Those who are often called to contemplate the wants of the indigent, the helpless and the infirm, are taught to set a proper value on the exemption which they enjoy from the real evils of poverty. The frequent assemblage too of individuals, who must necessarily come together on equal terms, has a happy tendency to remove those factitious barriers which pride and vanity have erected. The distinctions of rank are forgotten; and when celestial charity, that knows neither political nor religious appellation, is the object, the heart is meliorated and the moral character is improved by the diffusion of a spirit of amity and forbearance; and prejudice, who was wont to exclude all beyond a privileged class of associates, becomes ashamed to continue her unworthy proscriptions.

That such inestimable advantages are among the natural consequences of benevolent institutions is not a fond speculation, may be discerned, we think, in the improved state of society in this city. A more liberal intercourse has prevailed among the different circles for some years past, than was to be observed before the introduction of these associations. Although other circumstances may have concurred in producing this interchange of civilities, we are yet very much disposed to give considerable weight to the operation of the charitable offices which we are advocating. "Genuine simplicity of heart," says an eloquent philosopher "is an healing and cementing principle;" and where is this delightful quality beheld in more active and benignant forms than among the females of Philadelphia!

If then so much may be said in favour of benevolent foundations in general, how much might be added to stimulate the patronage of the public in favour of our interesting asylum! The judicious benevolence of the ladies who conduct it has been frequently and fervidly extolled, yet it is lamentable that the income of the society is not adequate to its annual expenses. We are informed that "the debt which remains due on the Asylum can only be met by the same liberality which has so eminently distinguished the benevolent individuals who have been called upon to contribute to this charity. The same exertions as have heretofore been used, it is believed, will not fail of producing the desired end of extricating the society from all existing claims; it is only necessary in order to make an impression on the public mind to present the object in the purity and simplicity of a charity for fatherless and motherless children, who are receiving not only the necessary supplies of food and raiment, but the very best instructions in the principles of learning, and the greatest attention to their religious and moral improvement."—*Report of the Building Committee.*

We trust that this affecting appeal in behalf of a direct and indispensable duty will not have been made in vain. When has Philadelphia turned a deaf ear to the lispings of orphan infancy, the wants of the sick, and the cry of those who languish and are heavy laden? When has she been insensible of the truth of that maxim which instructs us to enlighten the ignorant, if we would secure the happiness of the community? While the idle and the vicious are a burden to society, it is admitted by all rational men that sound principles and industrious habits constitute the strength and ornament of the state. They are emphatically the productive capital and the solid basis of national welfare. How much money is daily diverted from the stream of public wealth and poured into the artificial channels of luxury which debases the mind and profligacy which destroys the soul! How much is lavished upon all the forms of pageantry and ostentation, of vice and folly, which is really the property of the great human family! If we suffer the youthful part of the community to grow up in ignorance of the comforts and restraints of religion, what can we expect but an overwhelming pauper-tax, and a mob population, careless of the rights of property and indifferent to the value of life—bloody, remorseless villains, unrestrained by the fears of futurity, and with no motives of action but those which flow from the basest propensities. Against such intolerable evils education is the only sure preventive. If we shudder at the magnitude which they have reached in foreign countries, let us be the more careful to protect our own shores, lest the incurable disease be fastened upon us. Our materials are of the most admirable fashion for the purposes which are here inculcated. Hitherto we have no dense population and extensive manufacturing systems to crowd our highways with a feverish, a discontented and an inflammable people, impatient of control and ripe for mischief. Here no unnatural aristocracy awakes the jealousy of inferior orders. Our slumbers are rarely awakened by the midnight murder, nor is the quiet of the community disturbed by factious enterprises against the public peace and conspiracies which shake the citadel of government. We are an orderly, well disposed, and tolerably well informed nation of republicans, willing to grow wiser, though sufficiently proud of the knowledge we already possess. We have, it is true, our full share of ambitious demagogues who are craving after power, and office seekers who thirst for the emoluments of place. But these enemies of social order, whose claims are generally founded in profligacy and corruption, are not so numerous as to perplex the course of things among a moral and a prudent people.

Though young in years, this nation is blind and obstinate if it will not be old in experience. The country from which we descended is groaning under the weight of its eleemosynary contributions for the support of imprudence and idleness, and we are thus loudly warned, as we feel for ourselves, as we regard our posterity, as we would perpetuate the blessings of our incomparable constitution, to train up the indigent orphan in habits of industry, frugality, temperance and religion. This is the surest way to impart activity to effectual labour. If it should please the Divine Being to visit us with some great national calamity, the horrors of our situation would not then be aggravated by our being surrounded by a starving population of unprincipled miscreants. And when the sunshine of prosperity should again gild our horizon, and bid every thing to bud and bloom, we might behold a class of prudent and industrious people, distinguished by nobler qualities than a profligate disregard of the moment; a Christian community, instead of wretches who live in vice, and who die, like one of the finest conceptions of modern fiction, hoping nothing, believing nothing, and *fearing* nothing. SEDLEY.

MR. ALLSTON'S PICTURE.

Mr. Allston has just completed a picture to which he has devoted four months' labour, with so much success, that it will probably remain a monument of his genius when no other vestige of the same four months will any where be found. It will be exhibited next week at his room, and thus afford the public an opportunity of gratification which has hitherto been confined only to his friends.

The subject of this painting is the prophet Jeremiah dictating to Baruch. Perhaps those who intend to visit it will be better able to judge of the work, if they previously reperuse the 36th chapter of Jeremiah, and two or three that precede and follow it, in order to impress their minds more fully with the character of that great prophet. The time chosen for the picture is that when Jeremiah being in confinement for his unwelcome prophecies in the fourth year of the reign of Jehoiakim, could not go to the temple to announce to the people the commands of God. The word of the Lord came to him, directing him to take a roll, and write on it all the words he had spoken unto him from the days of Josiah up to that day. The prophet called Baruch, and employed him to write all these words, and then sent him to the Temple, to proclaim them to the people.

With the exception of a sentinel on duty, at the foot of the flight of steps in the back ground, there are only two figures, Jeremiah and Baruch, both seated, the latter almost wholly in the shade, while the light strikes fully on the former. The contrast and the harmony of these two figures are admirable. That of the prophet, who is of *heroic* size, recals to mind the energy of Michael Angelo's statue of Moses, while the scribe is one of the most truly *Raphaelic* designs that has been painted since his day. Jeremiah is in the full vigour of manhood, the veins swelling on the forehead, tears standing in his eyes, which are red with weeping, the whole countenance filled with the sublimest expression of grief; of such grief as a prophet of his tenderness and boldness of character would feel in announcing, under the immediate inspiration of God, the ruin and desolation of his country, as a punishment for their iniquities. Baruch has also the deepest expression of sorrow, but with this difference in degree, that his grief is caused by the words of the prophet, while the tribulation of the latter is excited by the anger of an offended Deity. Nothing can be finer than the conception and graduation of feeling in the prophet and the scribe.

The scene is in the lower courts of an extensive palace, beneath which are dungeons; the effects of light and of perspective are striking in this architecture; the style of it has all the classic simplicity and grandeur of Poussin. The whole manner of the painting is severe, the accessaries few. Without going into the details of beauty in its execution, two may be mentioned that will be obvious to every spectator; the vase by the side of the prophet, and the hair of Baruch. In the figures there is a fine example of the dignity and correctness of the Roman school; and in the colouring, of the force and richness of the Venitian. Indeed, this painting will be an excellent subject for the attentive observation of those, who, having never visited Europe, wish to obtain an idea of the style of the great masters in the highest departments of painting. [*Boston D. Adv.*

THE BARILLA FINA.

Extract of a Letter from Henry Bry, esq. receiver of public monies at Ouachita, (Monroe,) July 1, 1820.

"On the 23d of May, I sowed the seeds of *barilla fina*, which you transmitted. I shall take the greatest care of the plant if it germinates. He who introduces a useful plant renders an essential service to his country. The successful cultivator is entitled to our gratitude equally with the inge-

nious mechanic, who teaches us how to stem the rapid currents of our mighty rivers.

"Permit me to make a few remarks on the culture of the *barilla*. In my travels in the south of Europe, I took notice of the cultivation of that valuable plant barilla, viz: *Salsola sativa*, Linn. which he describes, *Salsola diffusa, herbacea, foliis, teretibus, glubris, floribus conglomeratis*, is cultivated in the vicinity of Alicant, in Valencia, in Spain, and was, in the beginning of the French revolution, cultivated, with great success and profit, about Arles, and almost from Perpignan to Marseilles. In Spain they sow it in November; in France sometimes as late as April. The seeds must be sowed thickly, as not one half of them are ripe, and the practice is not to wait for their maturity before burning the plant. When sowed in land not salted, (viz. on the sea shore or salt marshes,) the plant degenerates, and the third crop yields almost nothing but potash. In this country it will grow well—the climate is congenial to the plant; but, if I mistake not, there can be no great crops, except on the sea shore, and about the salines, which are very numerous in the vale of Mississippi. Between this place and Natchitoches there is about four or five hundred acres of land in one body, containing a large quantity of *muriate de soude*, and there it will flourish. Although we now extract the *soude* from the *muriate de soude*, (common salt,) by the aid of sulphuric acid, yet the value of the *soude* from barilla will not be much diminished: for, in some particular dyes, the *soude* of common salt will not answer the intention. If the plant succeeds, I will send seeds to friends who live in the neighbourhood of salines. I have no doubt it is worth cultivating on the sea shores of the United States, from lat. 36 to the southernmost cape of Florida. That will be the country for *barilla*. H. Bry.

"*The Commissioner of the General Land Office.*"

Note—The seeds of *barilla fina* were transmitted by Mr. Forsyth, minister of the United States in Spain. They have been distributed extensively. In the manufacture of glass, of hard soap, in dyeing, &c. the *soda* obtained by the incineration of barilla, is of very great value.

J. M.

General Land Office, August 26, 1820.

Agriculture.

We consider ourselves much obliged to the correspondent who furnished the following address to farmers, and respectfully request his further assistance. There are probably some inaccuracies in the pointing in one or two parts, concerning which we should have been glad of an opportunity of consulting him.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

Indian Corn: its bad and good Culture.

An agricultural traveller, who has recently passed through parts of Montgomery, Berks, Lehigh, Northampton and Philadelphia counties, by the great roads leading through them, wishes, most cordially and earnestly, to call the attention of the farmers to their unfortunate style of agriculture, in some important particulars.

After leaving the neighbourhood of Norristown, with a few exceptions, a barely tolerable field of Indian corn was rarely to be seen, until he arrived, on his return from Easton, into the southern parts of Bucks county. The foes to all good husbandry, weeds, were predominant in almost every cornfield. If, perchance, the interior was tolerably clear, a circumstance which rarely occurred, the weeds around the enclosures were so lamentably abundant, that the corn was, in a great degree, obscured. Good and bad land exhibited the like ruinous and disgusting appearance and miserable promise; and the same bad system of culture prevailed. The ploughing was generally shallow, whatever might be the texture of the soil. Every field was ridged; many had been broken up in bulks, and furrows were always thrown up to the plants, for the drought to turn into dust, or indurate into impenetrable clods. The middle spaces between the rows were untouched, either by the plough or the harrow in very numerous instances. Countless varieties of pestiferous coarse grasses and weeds took possession of these neglected spots, furnishing a counterbalance to any supplies from the earth or the air, which the corn plants, in the absence of these pests, might have drawn, and effectually preventing the extension of their roots beyond the bounds of the elevated furrows, or narrow ridges, in which they were imprisoned. Can it then be wondered at, that the crops evidenced a sickly, stunted, and wretched appearance, both in colour and size? In some fields, where limestone prevailed, and, perhaps, lime had been applied, the colour was better, but the weeds and grasses abundant; on the head lands particularly, which are seldom sufficiently, if at all, stirred and cleaned: thus establishing a mischievous nursery of poisonous pests to perpetuate their scourges on future crops. Fall ploughing was rarely, if at all, practised; and lime little used, even in many limestone districts. One

farmer said, "their land was hot enough without lime." It is hoped, that this superlative ignorance of the qualities of lime, which, when slacked, is the coldest of all substances applied to land, is confined to the individual sporting the opinion. One of the uses of lime is to supply the soil, and that not too lavishly, with calcareous matter, when its caustic qualities are subdued.

This is not an exaggerated, but is a regretful picture. It is held up to intelligent and well disposed farmers, who, by viewing its deformities may banish entirely their present mode of culture, which, by its own showing, is proved to be radically wrong. A corn crop is not only in itself, but when well cultivated is in its consequences, the most valuable of all our products. With an abhorrence of weeds, the test of intelligence in a farmer, he can, with a corn crop, more effectually clean and prepare his fields for succeeding crops, than can be done by any other culture. Whilst he is attending his corn, which will not with impunity suffer neglect, he is not only invigorating and increasing his crop, but he is subduing his worst enemies—weeds of all kinds. This makes ample amends for the exhaustion of the soil by this gigantic plant.

The change recommended, is dictated not only by reasonable theory, but is founded on long experience and multitudinous practical proofs.

Deep and Flat Culture.

Plough your fields throughout *deeply;* and *that* in the fall, to expose and destroy the eggs of the grub moth; and roll, to pulverize the clods. Harrow in lime at this season, or on spring ploughed ground, for corn; and do not spread it on your fallows for wheat; because it is then injurious to your winter grain crop; as frequent experience has shown. Mark out your squares or drills, lightly, with the plough; and thereafter never suffer the plough to enter your fields. Work entirely with *harrows;* whereof procure the necessary variety; some with large, and others with smaller *hoes.* These cut up weeds, and sufficiently stir your intervals to any depth you choose. If the hand hoes be found indispensable, use them near your plants; but never hill or plough up furrows. The common harrow will have its share of usefulness; and spare it not. As often as young weeds appear; or your surface becomes crusty, often occasioned by drought after rains, ply the harrows. You will then have a deep, loose and light body of pulverized soil, for your roots to penetrate. It will imbibe the dews and gases from the atmosphere; and afford, in the severest droughts, perpetual moisture and nourishment; which will be exclusively applied to your corn plant; having no robbers to contend with. In droughts, deeply stirred soil inhales and *retains* moisture. In wet seasons, it is the least injured; because it affords room for superabundant wetness. Being elastic and buoyant, it does not consolidate or settle into concrete bodies, like shallow ploughed, cloddy, and unstirred ground. The corn roots (which have, in such ground, been measured ten feet long,) will have a continuous and not a divided soil, wherein to expand and extend themselves; in which, it being loose, deep, and constantly moist, the roots will far exceed those confined to narrow detached ridges, wherein they are short and starved. It is an idle opinion, to suppose that plants spend themselves in roots. The stronger the root, the more vigorous is the plant.

If you *will* introduce the plough after the first breaking up, either before or after planting; and squares are the most commodious for thorough stirring and cleaning; plough shallow; so as not to disturb the deeply buried sod. Let the harrows level and flatten your surface at the next operation; and continue them exclusively in all future stirrings. Your culture will be easier, cheaper, and more abundantly profitable, than those who are accustomed to the old modes will *believe*, until they *see.*

If your field requires drains, draw furrows in proper places. If it be naturally wet, break up deeply in very broad lands, on which the harrows may still be used, and drains sufficiently multiplied. If it be stony, rugged, or harsh, either plant other crops, or strengthen your harrows; ridged ground dries the soonest, and burns through; so does all shallow ploughed soil, whether ridged or flat. Attraction of moisture is trifling, and evaporation rapid.

Be not afraid of cutting corn roots, which benefit by excision; throwing out, on the parts attached to the plants, numerous fibres, to draw in and communicate their food.

Your corn, in deeply ploughed and frequently stirred ground, will resist storms and heavy rains, owing to the strength and numbers of its roots, far beyond hilled or ridged plants. If it yields to the storm, and leans, the extent, tenacity, and reacting contraction of the roots, will generally restore the erect position of the stalks: whereas, in

the ridged or hill culture, the roots are short, brittle, and incapable of recovery. It is not uncommon in the deep and flat culture, for those called finger roots, to grow entirely or greatly extended *under* instead of *above* the surface; and throw out innumerable fibres, to support the stalk.

Detach all suckers, which are robbers; and top, in due season, to shorten the lever, insure the standing of the stalks, and facilitate the ripening of the grains.

Banish all apprehensions, that working among corn in dry weather, is injurious. The contrary is the truth; for your harrows will, in such weather, have the double effect of more certainly destroying weeds, and pulverizing, to open mouths to take in moisture and gases, from the dews and the air.

It being seldom practised in Pennsylvania, I need not warn you against sowing winter grain in the same year with corn. This not only scourges your land, but interferes with the great use of the cleaning culture, affording the time and opportunity for weeds to recover their pestiferous reign, and is a sure test of slovenly and covetous farming.

If you will not at once believe in this system of corn husbandry, now frequently and ever successfully practised, where the best crops are to be seen, try a small portion of your field—do it justice—and compare it with the old mode, for your own and your neighbour's conviction. Whatever may be hastily thought of these observations, they are, with the most friendly wishes for their prosperity, offered for the serious consideration of liberal minded and unprejudiced farmers; among whom numberless instances of good farming, in other respects, are to be found, and to which the greatest proportion of the corn culture is a mortifying contrast. MENTOR.

September 10*th*, 1820.

Peach Trees.—The cultivation of this tree has become very interesting to gardeners in the vicinity of this city. A very simple mode of preserving and restoring them when apparently nearly destroyed by the disease so fatal to them in this quarter, and commonly called the "Yellows," has been accidentally discovered by a gentleman in this city. A statement of the fact, as it occurred, will convey all necessary information. In the fall of 1818, a very fine tree standing in his yard, was apparently dead from the effects of the abovementioned disease—throughout the fall and winter, very large quantities of common wood ashes were casually thrown by the servants about the root of the tree. To the astonishment of all who had seen it the preceeding fall, it put forth its leaves vigorously the next season, and bore abundance of fine fruit. A small quantity of wood ashes was again thrown round its root last fall, and the tree is now so full of fine fruit that it has become necessary to prop it up. This is a very simple remedy, and certainly worthy of trial.

The foregoing paragraph is from Mr. Lang's gazette of this morning. A gentleman has since called upon us, who has tried the same experiment, with all the success he could have desired. He wishes us to recommend this simple method of preserving this valuable fruit tree to the public; and he also suggests to the New York Agricultural Society, the expediency of having printed handbills of the above article, stuck up in all the markets, and given to every countryman who attends them, that the information may be as widely diffused as possible. [*N. Y. Com. Adv.*

Record.

The attention of the people of Ohio, and the western states generally, has been attracted by some speculations in the newspapers upon the subject of *another great western canal* from Lake Erie to the Ohio river. This will be a continuation of the inland navigation about to be opened by the great canal of New York, and will probably be effected, as the success of the former undertaking has been so much greater, (or earlier at least) than was hoped for.

A man died at Conhocton, New York, in six minutes from the sting of a bee at the lower point of the ear.

England.—The queen of England continues to receive and answer popular addresses from various parts of the kingdom. Some of her answers look very much like an intimation of an appeal to the people, should the lords decide against her.

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

The true business of the nation within the province of parliament, is almost entirely set aside by this scandalous question of the queen's irregularities. It has caused the indefinite postponement of the subjects of Roman Catholic emancipation and parliamentary reform, with other great inquiries tending to provide remedies either for the political disaffection or the physical distress by which the existence of the government and social order itself are threatened. The monopoly of interest which it has gained in the legislature is pleasantly illustrated in the following passage of a speech of lord Holland on the alien bill, delivered July 18th.

"As he thought this bill well worthy of attention, he was not to be deterred from performing his duty because there was another subject which attracted much attention. As to that sub-

ject, indeed, the public and parliament, and in some degree, he would own, he himself were in the situation which was described by the author of a book which he had read eighteen years ago. The author of that work, Mr. Eaton, who had put his observations during his travels in Turkey into a book called the Survey of the Turkish Empire, happened to land at a port of Bulgaria with twenty-six persons in his suite, where he was introduced to the Greek governor, who was sitting on a bench with a Turk of great distinction. This Turk, with a look which manifested that "great distinction," gave his order, that Mr. Eaton, with all his suite, should have their heads cut off, and he accordingly sent for a bag, probably a green bag, as green was a colour in great honour with persons of that persuasion, [a laugh!] and for some sawdust, the bag being to receive the heads, and the sawdust to absorb the blood of Mr. Eaton and his companions. In the suite of Mr. Eaton, was an interpreter of the Italian nation, besides whom, there was not one who could speak a word of Turkish. The whole of the twenty-six were very earnest with the interpreter to state who they were, and what claims they had on the respect of the Turkish authorities. But he had unfortunately got a glimpse of the bag, and with all the grimace which is peculiar to the people of the south of Europe, he kept exclaiming (and not a word else would he utter), *Ah! quel sacco! quel maledetto sacco!* "Oh! that bag! that accursed bag!" [a laugh!] so that Mr. Eaton and his followers were in imminent danger of losing their property, their lives, and possibly their characters, because this bag so filled the imagination of the interpreter. When he saw the number of the bills on the table, he thought the country was something in the situation of Mr. Eaton's suite, since parliament, the interpreter of the wishes of the people, was likely to allow their pockets to be picked, and their liberties to be endangered, because of their dismay at the accursed green bag. [A laugh!]"

If there be any topic besides this to which serious attention is paid, it is the extension of the British trade. Committees of parliament had been busy in examining the merchants of London and Liverpool engaged in the commerce with South America, with a view to ascertain its value and the means of its enlargement. The reports of the committees appointed to investigate the state of trade, agriculture and manufactures, generally, do not hold out the expectation that there will be any material relaxation of *the restrictive system*. They recognise it, impliedly at least, as a national evil, but represent it as incapable of speedy cure, by reason of the vast, unmanageable interests which it has created. Mr. Wallace, in presenting (July 18th), the first of the reports of the committee on foreign trade, complained heavily of "the extraordinary multiplication and complexity of the laws by which commerce was affected." He stated that the number of laws relative to mercantile transactions was, in 1815, fifteen hundred, of which eleven hundred were in full and almost daily operation; and that many additions had been since made.

Dr. Dwight's Theology has been reprinted in England, in five octavo volumes. We have seen a letter from the Rev. Mr. Horne (author of "An Introduction to the Holy Scriptures, &c. &c.") in which he states, that he has read few modern works on theology with more profit.

The Bank of England have made choice of a plan for engraving bank notes. A distinguished member of the committee to which the selection was entrusted, in a letter to a gentleman in this city, stated that one objection to Perkins and Fairman's plan was, that it was thought inexpedient to entrust so important a work to foreigners. One of the committee has published a pamphlet, to prove that Perkins' notes could be counterfeited. This he has defied them to prove. On the other hand, the note on the plan adopted was handed to Mr. Perkins, who successfully imitated it in three days.

The British armament which drove the pirates from the Persian gulf, and took possession of their forts and works, has been attacked by the robbers and has suffered much loss.

Spain.—The king of Spain is the object of the most enthusiastic popularity. Whenever he appears among his people, his presence is greeted by the acclamations of thousands. His majesty is said to feel sensibly the happiness of the change that has been effected in his situation. The people of Spain mark in every way their enthusiasm of the constitution, and even every article of fashionable dress now bears the distinctive appellation of *La Constitution.*

Prussia.—A great quarrel took place in Berlin in July, between the military and the populace. The mob were successful for a long time, but were at last overpowered by fresh troops. It is said that the Prussian nation will not much longer submit to the evasions by which the king has avoided giving them the promised constitution.

We are much pleased to hear that Messrs. Thomas Dobson and Son are about to republish Hallam's View of the Middle Ages, a work that supplies with great ability an important chasm in the annals of history

The third No. of Tanner's American Atlas will be published in the course of the ensuing month. The unusual length of time which has elapsed since the publication of the second number of this work, was occasioned by a desire on the part of the author, to avail himself of some important geographical information, which has recently been received, and incorporated into the work.

In answer to the reproof of S. T. "that we have given no account of the fever," we inform him, that it has been thought proper to wait till the alarm shall have subsided, and then to procure a succinct history of the disease from a source to be depended upon.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

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Political Economy.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

STRICTURES

On the "Inquiry into the Causes of Public Distress and Prosperity," by the writer in the National Gazette, under the signature of "SAY."

As in my opinion these essays contain a fundamental error, fatal to the writer's whole train of reasoning on the causes of public prosperity and distress, I shall endeavour to point it out to your readers, and, in so doing, submit to them my own views in relation to this important inquiry. Certain other mistakes, the legitimate consequences of the same gratuitous hypothesis, upon which his whole argument rests, and into which this writer has necessarily fallen, will also be noticed. The detection of these incidental errors, will thereby strengthen our conviction of the unsoundness of his general theory, and more completely insure its entire rejection.

Previous, however, to entering upon this examination, I must be permitted to express the high respect I entertain, not only for the talents displayed by this writer on so dry and difficult a subject of investigation, but for the philosophical dignity and candour with which it is conducted—an example worthy of imitation by all who undertake the discussion of controverted doctrines. He is, besides, undoubtedly in possession of many of the best lights to guide him in so abstruse and entangled a path, and has meditated deeply on the subject which has employed his pen.

The radical mistakes in these speculations, which I am about to examine, it has appeared to me, may be traced to the strong influence which the peculiar theoretical views of Mr. Ricardo have had on the mind of this economist. Captivated, perhaps, by the depth, ingenuity and acuteness with which Mr. Ricardo has supported and illustrated his hypothetical doctrines in relation to the nature of *value*, the writer of these essays, in discussing a subject, the correct understanding of which must be so intimately connected with clear and accurate notions on this important point, has suffered his own powers of analysis to slumber, and adopted opinions, the fallacy of which his natural penetration, if vigorously exercised, would have enabled him to detect. I am fully sensible of the value and justness of many of his observations, especially those in relation to the subject of *currency*, contained in the third essay, and am not a little gratified in learning that so able an inquirer proposes hereafter to discuss this question at greater length. Nothing can more effectually contribute to recommend the science of political economy to more general notice in this country, and insure the reception and the practical application of its doctrines in our municipal codes, than the steady and continued direction of our most powerful minds to the elucidation of its various interesting problems.

Notwithstanding our difference of opinion on the causes of public prosperity and distress, I am very confident we shall agree in acknowledging, that the cause of genuine science, the great object, I trust, we both aim at, will best be promoted by free and unrestrained investigation, when prosecuted with fairness and decorum. Unconscious, for my own part, of having indulged in the captiousness of controversy, I feel assured it will not be imputed to me, either by the writer whose opinions I am about to submit to a free examination, or by the reader who shall honour my own speculations with an attentive perusal.

With these very general remarks, I will now proceed to enter upon the proposed strictures on this inquiry into the causes of public prosperity and distress. This discussion, then, commences with the following observations:

"From this inquiry *moral* distress is excluded. It is an *unmixed* question of political economy, concerning the employment and the profits of labour and capital."

I am at a loss, it must be confessed, here to understand, how *moral* distress can be excluded from an inquiry into the causes of public prosperity and distress, or in what way "the employment and the profits of labour and capital" can be considered as an *unmixed* question of political economy, if it be intended by the writer, as it obviously is, by this means to put us in possession of those ultimate facts, or general principles, which will always be sufficient to account for, and furnish an explanation of, all the phenomena observed in relation to this subject. If, to use an expression of the inquirer, "we begin with first principles and come down," it must, I apprehend, be conceded, that the profitable or unprofitable employment of human industry, natural powers and capital, the real agents engaged in production, essentially depends on the direct or immediate influence of moral, or if it be desirable to be more precise, of moral and political causes. Hence, every attempt to divest ourselves of these important considerations, in the investigation of an economical problem, with a view to give greater simplicity to its discussion, will cause us to reject one of the most essential elements necessary for its correct solution.

Dr. Adam Smith investigated the principles of the human frame, with a view to get at the only solid foundation capable of supporting those economical views which he developed with such uncommon clearness, beauty and strength. It was in this manner that he was enabled to ascertain that the steady demand by mankind for the products of labour had its origin in that desire to better our condition, which forms a part of the constitution of our nature, and which alone is sufficient to induce those sacrifices, constituting the cost of production, which insure their supply. He, therefore, most certainly considered whatever relates to the profitable or unprofitable employment of labour, as being intimately, nay inseparably, connected with those causes which retard or advance its employment and increase or diminish its profits. The great success with which this justly celebrated author prosecuted the inquiry into the causes of the wealth of nations, furnishes the most indisputable evidence of the soundness of his method of investigation.

Dr. Smith also remarked, in pursuing this inquiry, that little assistance was to be derived from the speculations of the ancients, who confined their attention to what might have been termed by them, *unmixed* questions of political economy or finance, and rejected the consideration of those universal principles of human nature, which constitute, or at least ought to constitute, the foundation of all moral and political reasoning. Had the ancients possessed a more correct knowledge of these principles, as has been observed by a highly distinguished writer on moral science, their philosophers and historians would never have ascribed the decline of states "to the influence of wealth on national character;" nor have proposed "the banishment of the precious metals, as a perfect model of legislation."

None of the questions of political economy are unmixed with moral considerations, and it is impossible to obtain a correct solution of any one of them on the plan proposed and adopted by "Say."—Moreover, it is this intimate and inseparable connexion between moral, political and economical science, to avail ourselves of the emphatic language of Dugald Stewart, which "can alone dignify the calculations of profit and loss in the eye of the philosopher." It is, indeed, owing to these improved views, in relation to this latter science, that the attention of the philosophical world has of late been more generally attracted to it. Political economy, considered as a branch of study, now takes its place alongside of the inductive science of the human mind, and owes some of its most splendid and important illustrations to this very natural connexion.

This writer, however, in laying down as preliminary to his inquiry, the necessity of excluding *moral* distress from what he considers to be a pure and *unmixed* question of political economy, as distinguished from and unconnected with moral principles, appears to have adopted this course, more from an opinion of its superior advantage in point of perspicuity and simplicity in treating a subject which unquestionably so much required it, than from any well defined or deep impression of its bearing upon the problem under consideration. If public prosperity, however, be not altogether dependant upon the employment and the profits of labour and capital, as I trust I shall be enabled to prove, it is of no small importance to have shown, that this method of stating the question, is not only altogether erroneous, but the prolific source of the various errors into which "Say" has fallen.

The happiness and prosperity of man

kind, as well as the foundation of a progressive improvement in their condition and character, when traced to their true origin, will be found to arise from the operation of those essential principles of the human frame, the appetites, desires and affections, which at all times urge them to every species of exertion, both speculative and active, conducive to their well being. The master-spring of human industry is the desire of bettering our condition. A necessary and almost manifest corollary from this well established position is, that the advancement of human improvement and happiness, as well as whatever contributes to the general comforts and accommodations of life, will be most effectually secured, not, as is maintained by the inquirer, from the employment and the profits of labour and capital, but *by the production of the greatest quantity of commodities* subservient to these important purposes. No other conclusion can be deduced from the foregoing premises. We are therefore in possession of the true object of our inquiry, to wit, the causes of public prosperity and distress; for, if public prosperity result from an augmentation of the *quantity* of commodities, public distress must likewise arise from their diminution.

Public prosperity is then manifestly referrible to whatever causes augment the products of industry, natural agents and capital, and is not a question, as contended by this writer, wholly turning on the employment and the profits of labour. Let me endeavour to make this more clearly appear by the following argument.

The prosperity of a community arises, as will be now admitted, from the proportion which the supply of its enjoyments bears to its demand for them, or, according to the more technical language of economists, upon the relation which production bears to consumption. Now, it is obvious that any diminution in the cost of production, must necessarily insure an augmentation of products, from thereby extending the demand for them. The cost of production can only be diminished by a diminution in the value of the agents employed in production, namely, natural powers, human industry and capital. This diminution of value, then, augments their quantity, and, hence, the profits of capital, and the rent of land, as well as the rewards of the productive services of all other natural agents, diminish, and the general prosperity results from causes obviously directly the reverse of those inferred from the inaccurate position assumed by this writer.

Adam Smith has expressly laid it down, in the chapter of the Wealth of Nations on *stock* (capital), that "when profit diminishes merchants are very apt to complain that trade decays; though *the diminution of profit* is the natural effect of its prosperity, or of a greater stock being employed in it than before." This same view, in relation to the profits of capital, is maintained by M. Say (whose name has been adopted by this writer,) in his highly profound work on the principles of political economy. The inquirer, besides, has fallen into a mistake, I am sure unintentionally, in supposing that Say was of opinion, that the low rate of interest was no proof of national prosperity. I will only refer him to the numerous passages in his treatise, in which he speaks of the great benefits conferred upon society, by diminishing the cost of production of all commodities, which can only be effected by reducing the profits of capital, or in other words, the interest of money.

The wages of labour would also receive a correspondent depression, were it not that the increase of capital and natural agents create new and more extensive demands for the industry of man. Driven from those employments engrossed by capital and natural agents, his industry receives a new direction and very naturally finds its way into those channels in which a disadvantageous struggle with the other agents of production can no longer take place, and obtain rewards augmented by the absence of all competition. Employments are opened to mankind more conducive to the development of their intellectual faculties, the peculiar powers now called into operation, and thus their moral happiness is most effectually promoted by the same means that insure an increase to their physical enjoyments. Such is the beautiful provision made by nature in the principles of our constitution, to secure the progressive improvement in the character and condition of the human race. The natural effect of the growth of national wealth, when not perverted to the purposes of war, must be to augment the happiness and prosperity of society.

General distress, on the other hand, must also result from a diminution in the amount of production; not from a diminution of the profits of capital and natural agents. The transition from a state of war to a state of peace, by causing the cessation of the demand for a particular class of commodities, very often produces a great deal of

distress to the persons engaged in their production. The reason that this suffering will be less in a *new* than in an *old* country, is not because "the population is less dense, and the labourers discharged from one employment, find employment at reduced prices speedily in other labours," but from the circumstance that, in a new country, the commodities for which the demand has ceased, are principally produced by *circulating*, instead of *fixed*, capitals. It is not in my power, nor will my time at present admit, to do any thing more than thus briefly notice this error.

The great and fruitful causes of most public calamities and distress, have their origin in *war*. The destruction of capital which war brings about, is in itself sufficient to account for all the evils which at different periods have afflicted the human race. Of what avail is it that a new impulse is given to *demand*, if the means of supply are cut off. This, however, is not the case, and it has been by no author more clearly established than by M. Say, in his admirable and highly original chapter on "Markets," in which it will be seen that the only *demand* for production arises from the creation of products.

I have thus, I trust, pointed out the true causes of public prosperity and distress. It only remains for me to notice one or two more errors of this inquirer. He says: "that an individual ought not to spend more than his income, but his expenditure ought to be, according to that proportion, *as large as his income*: it should, indeed, be well spent: but it is both a moral and political vice *to have much and spend little*." Now M. Say, in speaking of the profits of capital, remarks: "On ignorait que l'argent épargné pour le faire valoir est dépensé tout de même (puisque, si on l'enfouissait, on ne le ferait pas valoir), qu'il est dépensé d'une maniere cent fois plus profitable à l'indigence, et q'un homme laborieux n'est jamais assuré de pouvoir gagner sa subsistance que là ou il se trouve un capital *mis en réserve* pour l'occuper. *Ce prejugé* contre les riches qui ne dépensent pas tout leur revenu, est encore dans beaucoup de têtes," &c.

Foreign commerce undoubtedly has "a vivifying and benign influence upon the countries which have enjoyed it;" but not altogether "by perpetually sustaining old and creating new *demands*," the reasons assigned by this writer. Commercial industry, like every other branch of industry, gives a new *value* to the commodities on which it is employed, by placing them *within the reach of the consumer*, in this way changing their *form*, but exactly in the same manner as is done by agriculture and manufactures. In no sort of production is there *any creation of matter*, and upon a close examination the most striking analogy will be found to exist between all these three modes of productions, in many instances running into each other.

GALIANI.

Agriculture.

Extract from an Address delivered before an Agricultural Society in Massachusetts, by Josiah Quincy.

Before passing to treat, very briefly, the remaining topic of discourse, may I be permitted to say a word on the style of our buildings? It will be worth the time, if it make only one man, about to build, consider.

The fault is not peculiar to farmers—it is true of men in almost every rank and condition of life—that, when about to build, they often exceed their means, and almost always go beyond the real wants of their families, and the actual requisition of their other relations in life. But, let not the sound, practical, good sense of the country be misled, by the false taste and the false pride of the city; where wealth, fermenting by reason of the greatness of its heaps, is ever fuming away in palaces—the objects of present transitory pride, and too often of future, long continued, repentance.

Now, what do we sometimes see in the country? Why a thriving farmer, touched with this false taste, will throw up a building 30 or 40 feet square, 2 or 2½ stories high, four rooms on a floor, with an immeasurable length of out-building behind. And what is the consequence of all this greatness? Why often, for years, the house will not be wholly glazed; or, if glazed, not clapboarded; or, if clapboarded, not finished; the destined portico is never put up; the destined front step is never put down; and the ragged clapboards, on each side of the front door, there they stand, year in and year out, staring and gaping at each other, with a look of utter despair of ever being united.

And if you go into these mansions what do you see? Why you will often find, that while the good man of the house and his consort are snugly provided with warm well plaistered rooms, the children and all the rest of the family sleep about in unfinished

chambers, subject to every sort of exposure; and "the best room," as it is called, in the original plan of the mansion, there it stands, the lumber room of the family for half a century; the select and eternal abode of crickets and cockroaches, and all sorts of creeping and skipping things; full of old iron and old leather, the stuffing of decayed saddles; the ragged relics of torn bedquilts, and the orts and ends of twenty generations of corn cobs.

When will man learn, that his true dignity as well as happiness consists in proportion? In the proportion of means to ends; of purposes to means; of conduct to the condition of life, in which a kind Providence has placed him; and to the relations of things concerning which, it has destined, he should act.

The pride of the farmer should be out in his fields. In their beauty, in their order, in their product, he should place the gratification of his humble and honourable ambition. The farmer's great want is capital. Never should his dwelling be splendid at the expense of his farm. In this, all that is surplus in his capital should concentrate. Whatever is uselessly expended elsewhere is so much lost to his family and his fortune.

I shall now recur briefly to another class of deficiencies—the want of system in the plans of our farmers.

System relates to time, to courses, and to modes of husbandry. A full elucidation of each topic would embrace the whole circle of farming dispositions and duties. The time will not permit any thing more than a recurrence to one or two leading ideas. Want of system in agriculture leads to loss of time and increase of expense. System has chief reference to succession of crops, to sufficiency of hands, and to selections of instruments. As to the succession of crops, called rotation, almost the only plan of our farmers is to get their lands into grass as soon as possible, and then to keep them in grass as long as possible. The consequence of this practice, for it deserves not the name of a system, is to lead to the disuse, or rather to the least possible use, of that great source of agricultural riches, the plough. Accordingly, it has almost become a maxim, that the plough is the most expensive of all instruments; and, of consequence, as much as possible to be avoided. And so it is, and so it must be, as the business of our farms is managed. By keeping lands down to grass as long as possible, that is, as long as the hay product will pay for mowing and making; the consequence is, that our lands, when we are obliged reluctantly to put the plough into them, are bound, and matted, and crossbarred, with an impervious, inextricable, infrangible web of root and sod. Hence results a grand process, called "a breaking up," with 4, 5, or 6 head of cattle, as the case may be, with three men, one at the ox head, a second at the plough beam, and the third at the plough handle. Is there any wonder that such a ploughing apparatus is an object of aversion?

It is impossible for any man to witness "a breaking up" of this kind without being forcibly reminded of the reflection made by a dry Dutch commentator, on that passage in the book of Kings, where it is said, that "Elisha was found ploughing with 12 yoke of oxen." "Well!" said the commentator, "it is no wonder that Elisha was glad enough to quit ploughing for prophesying, if he could not break up with less than twelve yoke of oxen."

In fact, the plough is the natural instrument of the farmer's prosperity, and the system of every farmer ought to have reference to facilitating and increasing its use. Let a rotation be adopted embracing two or three years' successive ploughings, for deepening and pulverizing crops, to be succeeded by grain and grass, for two or three years more. The plough, on its return every five, six, or seven years, finds, in such case, the land mellow, soft, unimplicated by root, and tender in sod. The consequence is, that "a breaking up" is then done with one yoke of oxen and one man. The expense is comparatively small. There is nothing to deter, and every thing to invite the farmer to increase the use of that most invaluable of all instruments. It ought to be a principle that our farming should be so systematized that all "breaking up" should be done with one yoke of oxen and one man; who both drives and directs the plough.

Systematic agriculture also requires a sufficiency of hands. Whatever scale of farming any man undertakes to fill, hands enough to do it well are essential. Although this is a plain dictate of common sense, yet the want of being guided by it, in practice, is one great cause of ill success in our agriculture. Because we hear every day, that "labour runs away with all profits in farming," almost every farmer lays it down as a maxim, to do with as little labour as possible. Now, this maxim almost always results in practice, in doing with less than he ought. The effect is almost every where seen in loss of time; loss of season; loss of the em-

ploy of working cattle, and loss, or deterioration, of crop. Now, in truth, labour, as such, never yet diminished any man's profit; on the contrary, it is the root and spring of all profit. Labour unwisely directed and unskilfully managed is, indeed, a great consumer of the farmer's prosperity. But labour, wisely directed and skilfully managed, can, from the nature of things, result in nothing else than profit. What is skilful management, and what is wise direction of labour, opens a field almost boundless; and not to be attempted on the present occasion. A single remark must suffice. The great secret of European success in agriculture, is stated to be "much labour on, comparatively, little land." Now, the whole tenor of Massachusetts husbandry, from the first settlement of the country, has been little labour on much land. Is it wonderful, then, that success should be little or nothing, when conduct is in direct violation of principle on which the success depends?

With respect to utensils, too, system requires that they should be the most perfect of their kind; and always the most perfect in their state.

Great profits in agriculture can result only from great improvements of the soil. Great improvements of the soil can result only from unremitting industry. The chief study of every farmer should be, *what is useful, and what is useless expense, in relation to his art.* The discrimination between these is the master key of the farmer's prosperity. The first should be incurred with a freedom little short of profusion. The last should be shunned, as the sailor shuns the rocks where are seen the wreck of the hopes of preceding mariners.

In this art, and almost in this art alone, "it is the liberal hand which maketh rich."

Liberality in providing utensils is the saving both of time and of labour. The more perfect his instruments, the more profitable are they.

So also it is with his working cattle and his stock. The most perfect in their kinds are ever the most profitable.

Liberality in good barns and warm shelters is the source of health, strength, and comfort, to animals; causes them to thrive on less food, and secures from damage all sorts of crops.

Liberality also, in the provision of food for domestic animals, is the source of flesh, muscle, and manure.

Liberality to the earth, in seed, culture, and compost, is the source of its bounty.

Thus it is, in agriculture, as in every part of creation, a wise and paternal Providence has inseparably connected our duty and our happiness.

In cultivating the earth, the condition of man's success is his industry upon it.

In raising domestic animals, the condition of his success is kindness and benevolence to them.

In making the productiveness of the earth depend upon the diligence and wisdom of the cultivator, the Universal Father has inseparably connected the fertility of his creation with the strongest intellectual inducements, and the highest moral motives.

In putting the brutal world under his dominion, he has placed the happiness of which their nature is susceptible under the strong guaranty of man's interest.

Instead, therefore, of repining at his lot, let the cultivator of the ground consider his as among the highest and happiest of all human destinies, since in relation to the earth, he is the instrument of heaven's bounty, and, in relation to the inferior orders of creation, the almoner of Providence.

FROM THE AMERICAN FARMER.

Method of cutting off Corn and stacking it in the field, described.

Morefield, Hardy County, (Va.)

Dear Sir—You inform me that the experiments made in your state, of taking the corn off the field with the fodder, have not succeeded.

That the corn was subject to rot, if the weather was warm or wet; also, that it increased the labour.

Our method is as follows: We are prepared with cutting knives made out of worn out or broken grass scythes; one, cut in the middle, will make two corn cutters; the back of the but-end drawn into a spike, and a piece of wood put on something like a sickle handle. We begin on the side of our field that seems to be the driest. A boy goes on between the 8th and 9th rows, and counts to the 8th hill, then ties or locks together the four centre hills above the ears, which four hills are not to be cut, but left for a support to begin the stack; he then counts on sixteen hills further, and ties the four hills in the same manner, and so on to the end of the rows and field.

The two first cutters take, one the seventh and eighth, and the other the ninth and tenth rows; the two next cutters take the fifth and sixth, and the eleventh and twelfth; they walk between these rows and take the corn hill under their left arm,

and cut it near the ground, and cast it forward, so as to put five or six hills together: the carriers take it and set it round the four hills tied and left standing; setting it up straight and well, putting as near as they can an equal proportion all round, if we are doubtful our corn is too green, or the weather too warm or wet. After the first eight rows are cut and set up, we begin the next row of stalks, and go on leaving eight and cutting eight rows throughout our crop; in a few days the half stack will be cured: we then begin with the first, and cut and put to them the last eight rows; when the stacks have had three or four days to cure, we tie them about two-thirds of their height from the ground, to prevent the fall winds from disturbing them. In this way eight hands will secure ten acres per day, and the fodder will be good. We find it better than hay, so much of the saccharine substance being retained in the stalk, that large cattle eat it too near the ground. I believe that ten acres saved in this way will be nearly equal to twenty any other way that we have saved it. The part of our crop that we want for immediate use, to fatten pork, &c. we husk on the stalk, and cut and stack the fodder, in the same way, only we finish the stacks as we go. Care should be taken to cut near the ground, or the stubs will be in the way of cutting the grain with the cradle, as there will be some the harrower will not pull up.

The above method we have practised for at least twenty years, and could not keep the stock we do now any other way. There will be found a great difference in corn. The hard, white, or yellow flint, will do to cut up, when the fodder is much greener, and better than the large deep grained corn. It is also advantageous to cut green or young corn, that will not ripen before frost—as much more will become good by being cut up and stacked, than will be so if it is frostbit, and the fodder will be very fine; it appears to receive sustenance from the stalk long after it is cut up. Yours, &c.

ABEL SEYMOUR.

Record.

A LEGITIMATE CHINESE STATE PAPER.

FROM THE NATIONAL INTELLIGENCER.

TRANSLATION.

Paper from the Acting Viceroy, through the Hoppo, to the Hong Merchants, dated January 17th, 1820.

AH, by imperial appointment, the commissioner of customs on foreign commerce, at the port of Canton, hereby issues his commands to the Hong merchants.

I have received an official document from the acting viceroy, of which the following is a copy:

An expose has been received from the Poo Ching Sye (Treasurer), which reads thus:

[On the 22d of the 10th month, in the 24th year of the Kea King, I received a letter from the acting viceroy, couched in these words—]

"With all possible expedition, institute an immediate consultation on the question, whether or not Heenle's American cruiser, which has come to Canton as convoy to their merchant vessels, shall be put upon the same footing as the English cruisers, and have a compredore given her? Make not the least delay in deliberating on this question, and return an answer."

Agreeably to the notification, I transmitted an order to an inferior officer to collect information, and deliberate on the subject; and have now received the Kwang Chow Foo's answer in these words:

"I, an inferior officer, having humbly investigated the subject, find, that in the 19th year of Kea King, the following arrangement was made by authority:—The English, alone, of all other foreign nations, have ships of war that come to Canton, as convoy to their merchant ships from the mother country. This is an instance of the needful attention and care of that country. The place of anchorage for those ships of war, was, by an order from court, decided to be either at Ling-ting or Cabercta Point. As long as the merchantmen were in port, the ships of war were, as usual, to have a compredore allowed them, but after the merchantmen sailed, the cruisers were no longer allowed to linger about on the coast. This was done in conformity to old regulations. This arrangement stands on record, and I have copied it and referred to it particularly for illustration. As the Americans heretofore had no cruisers which came to Canton, the arrangement pointed solely and only to the English. Heenle's American cruiser has now anchored at Ling-ting, and, according to the Nanchoy's statement of the Hong merchants' declaration to the ship's coming here, arises from the circumstance of the American merchantmen having to pass Spain in their way, and therefore the said nation had ordered the said cruiser to cruise about, and convoy the merchantmen—a gale of wind had driven her to Ling-ting, where she anchored, but she had no other cause or reason for coming. However, as she had been long at sea, and many of the sailors were sick, and provisions wanting, she will require to buy some, and to repair the vessel, sails, and ropes; but she has no person to make the necessary purchases. These appeared to be the facts.

"It may be right to accord with the said chief's earnest entreaty and solicitation, and the request of the said Nanchoy; to imitate the regulations made for the English cruisers, and to allow a compredore to be given, in order to manifest the tender hospitality of the Celestial Empire to remote foreigners, all of whom it views with equal benevolence; and further, it may be right to enjoin the Hong merchants to ascertain how many American merchantmen yet remain in the port, and how many persons the said

cruiser requires to act as compredores, and to do the same in this case as with other foreign ships, viz. to request the Hoppo to decide the number of persons: to order the Hong merchants to select safe men to act as compredores, and to inquire when all the merchantmen have sailed, after which the cruiser must not be permitted to linger about on the coast; and further, to command the said chief, that, when peace prevails at sea, a cruiser must not again be allowed to come as convoy, that there may be conformity to old regulations."

[Thus far the statement of Kwang Chow Foo came before me, the Treasurer, and, on re-examining the question, I have no different reasons to offer, but transmit the information, and wait for further orders.]

I, the acting viceroy, also received a document from the honourable the *Superior tendent* of customs (the Hoppo), couched in these words:

[I, the Hoppo, received an official document from your honour, the acting viceroy, requesting me to interrogate the Hong merchants, and order them to communicate my commands to the said nation's chief, and require an explicit answer to these questions.—What are the names of the merchant vessels convoyed to Canton by Heenle's cruiser? Where are those merchantmen anchored? Have they yet sailed to return home, or have they not? Return an immediate and true answer.]

I, the Hoppo, have, on receiving this document, ordered the Hong merchants to make the required interrogations and return an answer, which they have done to this effect:

"We, in obedience to the orders given, went in person to the foreign temporary residence, and took the orders we had received, and communicated the orders to the American nation's chief, Wilcocks, and he, after making the necessary inquiries, returned these answers:—'My foreign country's cruiser Heenle has received orders from authority to go to sea, and keep in subjection every merchantman that may come from my country to Canton, without any exception, no matter what the name may be; it is his duty to cruise throughout the whole course of the passage, to look after the merchantmen and convoy them. Again, there are of my country's merchantmen, at Canton, ten sail; their names are, Fee-la, and so on; they are now anchored at Whampoa, and have not yet set sail to return home,' &c.

"We, the Hong merchants, in obedience to the orders given us, communicated the injunctions, and now present the above answers."

[I, the Hoppo, again charged the Hong merchants to reiterate former orders to the said chief, requiring him to hasten the departure of the cruiser as soon as ever the merchantmen left the port, and to go away and convoy them; for, if she lingered about in the least degree, her offence would make it necessary to drive away by force, and now transmit the answer to you, the acting viceroy.]

On these several documents coming before me, the acting viceroy, I have examined the subject, and declare my opinion to be this:—That, as for all foreign nations trading to Canton, the English alone have heretofore had ships to convoy their merchantmen; exclusive of them, no other nation has had cruisers coming as convoy, and as Na-a, former viceroy, made a full statement of the affair to the emperor, before it was acceded to, as stands on record, the Americans, if they find it necessary to appoint a cruiser to convoy their ships to Canton, it is incumbent on the said nation's chief to present a petition to the honourable the Hoppo, requesting him to confer with the local authorities, and to write in writing to the emperor, desiring to know whether what is requested may be acceded to, or not; it is inexpedient to allow them to take upon themselves to appoint, in an underhand manner, the said vessel, and the affair turned out afterwards to be different from recorded statements to the emperor.

Further, as to what is said to the proposed arrangement, that the cruiser is for convoy, and after the merchantmen leave, the cruiser must not linger about on the coast. Since the cruiser is designated "convoy," it is necessary that she do actually convoy the ships, and go and come with them, and it is required that the names of the ships convoyed be distinctly and positively specified, to enable us to make, whenever occasion may require it, the appropriate examinations. As to what the said chief says so abruptly, that 'Heenle's cruiser convoys the whole of our merchantmen, no matter what their names may be, it is her duty to protect and convoy them through the whole course of the passage, and that there are ten of our ships that have not yet sailed,' &c.

On inquiry, it appears that Fee-la and the other nine ships came, some sooner and some later, to Whampoa. How could Heenle's one cruiser protect and convoy ten ships? and, moreover, of the American merchantmen one is coming and another going, one after another, at various intervals of time, and their names are entered at the custom-house as coming in and going out, whilst all the while Heenle's cruiser remains long anchored at Ling-ting; and we perceive no sort of protection or convoy that he affords them. What the chief says contradicts itself. As there is now peace prevailing in the Chinese seas, and, according to what the said foreigner said, when they were interrogated, viz. that there were foreign pirates on the Spanish coast, and, therefore, the cruiser was ordered to sea; and that she was driven to Ling-ting by stress of weather; such cruisers as these, in times past, have been restricted to the ocean; there was no occasion for her to come out and anchor in the waters of Canton.

The time, since she has suffered in the gale, it is proper for me to allow her to repair, and to give her a compredore to display a tender hospitality; and, therefore, I give the necessary instructions to the judge, treasurer, and all other officers concerned, to yield obedience to what I have granted. And I write hereby to the Hoppo, and hope that he will order the Hong merchants to state to the said nation's chief that the laws and institutions of the Celestial Empire are most strict: that, as the said country has not heretofore had any cruiser appointed to Canton, it is inadmissible to appoint

one in an underhand manner of their own accord, and without reference to the emperor. On this occasion, as Heenle has been driven here by stress of weather, he is allowed, for the time being, to anchor, and to have a compredore, which is a piece of kindness beyond the limits of a strict propriety; but this indulgence must not be drawn in to form a precedent. He is required to make the utmost despatch in getting ready for his departure, and he is not allowed to make further pretexts to gain time, and linger about, which course of proceeding would implicate him in guilt that would not be passed over without inquiry.

Thus the acting viceroy has written to me, the Hoppo, and I write all that has passed, and put it into this official form, and hereby command the Hong merchants to inform the said nation's chief, that the laws and institutions of the Celestial Empire are most strict, (and, in the close of the viceroy's letter,) do not oppose a special edict.

Kea King, 24th year, 12th moon, 2d day.

Miscellany.

From the New York Columbian.

IMPORTANT DISCOVERY.

By the favour of Dr. Mitchill we are enabled to lay before our readers the following very interesting letter from J. Robinson, esq. The magnitude of the discovery will not fail to arrest the attention of every one, and the surprise is, that such an extent of land and so situated should not before have been generally known. It is said, however, to have been discovered some years since by some American whalers, and the knowledge of it concealed for mercantile purposes.

—

Valparaiso, January 23, 1820.

Sir—I avail myself of an opportunity to write by the way of England, to notify you of a recent important discovery of land in the South Seas.

In the month of February, of the past year, captain Smith, master of the British merchant brigantine Williams, on a passage from Buenos Ayres to this port, round Cape Horn, in lat. 61 40 south, discovered land. When he arrived here, he reported what he had seen, but most persons were incredulous. Mortified by this scepticism, upon his return passage to Monte Video, he sailed to the southward to ascertain whether he had been deceived or not; but meeting with bad weather, and encountering ice, he was obliged to desist and prosecute his voyage; yet without abandoning his original intention, or losing his sanguine belief of the existence of land in the neighbourhood. In Monte Video, he prepared his vessel rather better than common, and proceeded a second time, round the cape towards Valparaiso, and on the 15th of October was gratified by a second sight of the same land he had seen before. The water was then high coloured, and he sounded in sixty-five fathoms, black and white sand and shells. The soundings gradually decreased to twenty-five fathoms and less, but coarser, and of an oozy, greenish colour, as he approached the shore.

Captain Smith was obliged to stand off and on, by a heavy swell, until the 17th ultimo, when he landed in lat. 64 43 south, and 57 10 west longitude, by observation and an excellent chronometer.

Here he saw many seals, sea lions, whales, and sea fowls—all perfectly fearless, and unacquainted with danger.

This land he calls a continent, and gave it the name of *New South Britain*, upon which he hoisted the British flag.

On the north coast of this land there is a chain or line of islands, from two to ten miles distant from the main, to which he gave the name of *Penguin Islands*. Between these islands and the main land, there is a kind of channel, from two to ten miles wide, with some current—and in one place an appearance of breakers, produced probably by a narrow passage and sunken rocks. The passage there is not more than a mile wide, but captain Smith did not explore it.

Captain Smith coasted to the west and west by south, sometimes inside of the islands, at others between them and the main, to the latitude of 63 degrees 53 minutes south, longitude 64 west; the wind then blowing from the southwest, he took his departure and steered from the land northwest by west, when it bore south and west, as far as could be discerned with good glasses, and with every appearance of its extending further. He describes the whole of this land, both the main and the islands, as being very high, even above the clouds, and the summits as having being covered with snow, and with generally a sterile, barren aspect, but with some indications of vegetation, shrubbery and wood in the vallies and apertures of the hills and mountains, and likewise with rivers and creeks. He stretched along this coast three hundred miles, with generally cool, pleasant weather, but not having been properly provided with boats, he did not attempt to land, notwithstanding he saw fine bays and sandy beaches.

Capt. Smith saw many fish of all colours and sizes, and different denominations. The most remarkable resembled the codfish of Cape Augully Bank, and the Isle Juan Fernandez. The whales were like those of Hudson's Bay and Davis' Straits. Besides these, he saw a species of white whale and black fish.

The soundings, or rather the matter drawn up with the lead, at each cast, are preserved. I have seen them, and likewise a draft of the land, by a good hand. Capt. Sheriff, the commander of the Andromache, and other British naval forces in these seas, will despatch a vessel in a few days to survey this land and report upon it.

Thinking this discovery may be interesting to you, sir, inasmuch as it may be the means of throwing a new light upon geography, navigation, and theory of the earth, I take the liberty to communicate the information, in the hopes that the facts will be gratifying to the Lyceum and useful to society in general.

Permit me to hint, that it is probable many great discoveries are yet to be made in this hemisphere, and that much has escaped the most

curious observers in the Pacific ocean. Should the government of the United States equip and commission a vessel, with suitable persons for a voyage of discovery to this quarter of the world, I think that the government and nation would be amply rewarded by the acquisition of knowledge, in addition to the conscious satisfaction, arising from having patronized and promoted laudable intelligence, adventure and enterprise.

Perhaps new sources of wealth, happiness, power and revenue would be disclosed, and science itself be benefited thereby. The land lately discovered lies in the track of vessels bound into and out of the Pacific ocean. With great respect I have the honour to be, sir, your most obedient, humble servant, J. Robinson.

To the Honourable Samuel L. Mitchill, L. L. D. President of the Lyceum of Natural History, New York, &c. &c. &c.

Criticisms on the Living Novelists.

(Continued from p. 184.)

MACKENZIE.

Although our veneration for Mackenzie has induced us to commence this series of articles with an attempt to express our sense of his genius, we scarcely know how to criticise its exquisite creations. The feelings which they have awakened within us are too old and too sacred almost for expression. We scarcely dare to scrutinize with a critic's ear, the blending notes of that sad and soft music of humanity which they breathe. We feel as if there were a kind of privacy in our sympathies with them—as though they were a part of ourselves, which strangers knew not—and as if in publicly expressing them, we were violating the sanctities of our own souls. We must recollect, however, that our readers know them as well as we do, and then to dwell with them tenderly on their merits, will seem like discoursing of the long cherished memories of friends we had in common, and of sweet sorrows participated in childhood.

The purely sentimental style in which the tales of Mackenzie are written, though deeply felt by the people, has seldom met with due appreciation from the critics. It has its own genuine and peculiar beauties, which we love the more the longer we feel them. Its consecrations are altogether drawn from the soul. The gentle tinges which it casts on human life are shed not from the imagination or the fancy, but from the affections. It represents, indeed, humanity as more tender, its sorrows as more gentle, its joys as more abundant, than they appear to common observers. But this is not effected by those influences of the imagination which consecrate whatever they touch; which detect the secret analogies of beauty, and bring kindred graces from all parts of nature to heighten the images which they reveal. It affects us rather by casting off from the soul, those impurities and littlenesses which it contracts in the world, than by foreign aids. It appeals to those simple emotions which are not the high prerogatives of genius, but which are common to all who are "made of one blood," and partake in one primal sympathy. The holiest feelings, after all, are those which would be the most common if gross selfishness and low ambition froze not "the genial current of the soul." The meanest and most ungifted have their gentle remembrances of early days. Love has tinged the life of the artizan and the cottager with something of the romantic. The course of none has been along so beaten a road that they remember not fondly some resting places in their journies; some turns of their path in which lovely prospects broke in upon them; some soft plats of green refreshing to their weary feet. Confiding love, generous friendship, disinterested humanity, require no recondite learning, no high imagination, to enable an honest heart to appreciate and feel them. Too often, indeed, are the simplicities of nature, and the native tenderness of the soul, nipped and chilled by those low anxieties which lie on them "like an untimely frost." "The world is too much with us." We become lawyers, politicians, merchants, and forget that we are men, and sink in our transitory vocations, that character which is to last for ever. A tale of sentiment—such as those of that honoured veteran whose works we would now particularly remember—awakens all these pulses of deep sympathy with our kind, of whose beatings we had become almost unconscious. It does honour to humanity by stripping off its artificial disguises. Its magic is not like that by which Arabian enchanters raised up glittering spires, domes, and palaces, by a few cabalistic words; but resembles their power to disclose veins of precious ore where all seemed sterile and blasted. It gently puts aside the brambles which overcast the stream of life, and lays it open to the reflexions of those delicate clouds which lie above it in the heavens. It shows to us the soft undercourses of feeling, which neither time nor circumstances can wholly stop; and the depth of affection in the soul, which nothing but sentiment itself can fathom. It disposes us to pensive thought—expands

the sympathies—and makes all the half-forgotten delights of youth "come back upon our hearts again," to soften and to cheer us.

Too often has the sentiment of which we have spoken, been confounded with sickly affectations in a common censure. But no things can be more opposite than the paradoxes of the inferior order of German sentimentalists and the works of a writer like Mackenzie. Real sentiment is the truest, the most genuine, and the most lasting thing on earth. It is more ancient as well as more certain in its operations, than the reasoning faculties. We know and feel before we think; we perceive before we compare; we enjoy before we believe. As the evidence of sense is stronger than that of testimony, so the light of our inward eye more truly shows to us the secrets of the heart, than the most elaborate process of reason. Riches, honours, power, are transitory—the things which appear, pass away—the shadows of life alone are stable and unchanging. Of the recollections of infancy nothing can deprive us. Love endures, even if its object perishes, and nurtures the soul of the mourner. Sentiment has a kind of divine alchymy, rendering grief itself the source of tenderest thoughts, and far-reaching desires, which the sufferer cherishes as sacred treasures. The sorrows over which it sheds its influence are "ill barter'd for the garishness of joy;" for they win us softly from life, and fit us to die smiling. It endures, not only while fortune changes, but while opinions vary, which the young enthusiast fondly hoped would never forsake him. It remains when the unsubstantial pageants of goodliest hope vanish. It binds the veteran to the child by ties which no fluctuations even of belief can alter. It preserves the only identity, save that of consciousness, which man with certainty retains—connecting our past with our present being by delicate ties, so subtle, that they vibrate to every breeze of feeling, yet so strong that the tempests of life have not power to break them. It assures us that what we have been we shall be, and that our human hearts shall vibrate with their first sympathies, while the species shall endure.

We think that, on the whole, Mackenzie is the first master of this delicious style. Sterne, doubtless, has deeper touches of humanity in some of his works. But there there is no sustained feeling—no continuity of emotion—no extended range of thought, over which the mind can brood in his ingenious and fantastical writings. His spirit is far too mercurial and airy to suffer him tenderly to linger over those images of sweet humanity which he discloses. His cleverness breaks the charm which his feeling spreads, as by magic, around us. His exquisite sensibility is ever counteracted by his perceptions of the ludicrous, and his ambition after the strange. No harmonious feeling breathes from any of his pieces. He sweeps "that curious instrument, the human heart," with hurried fingers, calling forth in rapid succession its deepest and its liveliest tones, and making only marvellous discord. His pathos is, indeed, most genuine while it lasts; but the soul is not suffered to cherish the feeling which it awakens. He does not shed, like Mackenzie, one mild sweet light on the path of life; but scatters on it wild corruscations of ever shifting brightness, which, while they sometimes disclose spots of inimitable beauty, often do but fantastically play over objects dreary and revolting. All in Mackenzie is calm, gentle, harmonious. No play of mistimed wit, no flourish of rhetoric, no train of philosophical speculation, for a moment diverts our sympathy. Each of his best works is like one deep thought, and the impression which it leaves, soft, sweet, and undivided as the summer evening's holiest and latest sigh.

The only exception which we can make to this character, is the *Man of the World*. Here the attempt to attain intricacy of plot disturbs the emotion which, in the other works of the author, is so harmoniously excited. A tale of sentiment should be most simple. Its whole effect depends on its keeping the tenor of its predominant feeling unbroken. Another defect in this story is, the length of time over which it spreads its narrative. Sindall, alone, connects the two generations which it embraces, and he is too mean and uninteresting thus to appear both as the hero and the chorus. When a story is thus continued from a mother to a daughter, it seems to have no legitimate boundary. The painful remembrance of the former interferes with our interest for the latter, and the present difficulties of the last deprive us of those emotions of fond retrospection, which the fate of the first would otherwise awaken. Still there are in this tale scenes of pathos delicious as any which even the author himself has drawn. The tender pleasure which the *Man of Feeling* excites is wholly without alloy. Its hero is the most beautiful personification of gentleness, patience, and meek sufferings, which the heart can conceive. *Julia de Roubigné* however is, on

the whole, the most delightful of the author's works. There is in this tale enough of plot to keep alive curiosity, and sharpen the interest which the sentiment awakens, without any of those strange turns and perplexing incidents which break the current of sympathy. The diction is in perfect harmony with the subject—"most musical, most melancholy"—with "golden cadences" responsive to the thoughts. There is a delicacy of loveliness, a plaintive charm in the image presented to us of the heroine, too sweet almost to dwell on. How exquisite is the description given of her by her maid, in a letter to her friend, relating to her fatal marriage:—"She was dressed in a white muslin nightgown, with striped lilac and white ribands; her hair was kept in the loose way you used to make me dress it for her at Belville, with two waving curls down one side of her neck, and a braid of little pearls. And to be sure, with her dark brown locks resting upon it, her bosom looked as pure white as the driven snow. And then her eyes, when she gave her hand to the count! they were cast down, and you might see her eye-lashes, like strokes of a pencil, over the white of her skin—the modest gentleness, with a sort of sadness too, as it were, and a gentle heave of her bosom at the same time." And yet, such is the feeling communicated to us by the whole work, that we are ready to believe even this artless picture an inadequate representation of that beauty which we never cease to feel. How natural and tear-moving is the letter of Savillon to his friend, describing the scenes of his early love, and recalling, with intense vividness, all the little circumstances which aided its progress! What an idea, in a single expression, does Julia give of the depth and the tenderness of her affection, when describing herself as taking lessons in drawing from her lover, she says that she felt something from the touch of his hand, "not the less delightful from carrying a sort of fear along with that delight: it was *like a pulse in the soul!*" The last scenes of this novel are matchless. Never was so much of the terrific alleviated by so much of the pitiful. The incidents are most tragic; yet over them is diffused a breath of sweetness, which softens away half their anguish, and reconciles us to that which remains. Our minds are prepared, long before, for the early nipping of that delicate blossom, for which this world was too bleak. Julia's last interview with Savillon mitigates her doom, partly by the joy her heart has tasted, and which nothing afterwards in life could equal, and partly by the certainty that she must either become guilty or continue wretched. Nothing can be at once sweeter and more affecting than her ecstatic dream after she has taken the fatal mixture, her seraphical playing on the organ, to which the waiting angels seem to listen, and her tranquil recalling the scenes of peaceful happiness with her friend, as she imagines her arms about her neck, and fancies that her Maria's tears are falling on her bosom. Then comes Montaubon's description of her as she drank the poison:—"She took it from me smiling, and her look seemed to lose its confusion. She drank my health! She was dressed in a white silk bed-gown, ornamented with pale silk ribands. Her cheek was gently flushed from their reflection; her blue eyes were turned upwards as she drank, and a dark brown ringlet lay on her shoulder." We do not think even the fate of "the gentle lady married to the Moor" calls forth tears so sweet as those which fall for the Julia of Mackenzie.

We rejoice to know and feel that these delicious tales cannot perish. Since they were written, indeed, the national imagination has been, in a great degree, perverted by strong excitements, and "fed on poisons till they have become a kind of nutriment." But the quiet and unpresuming beauties of these works depend not on the fashion of the world. They cannot be out of date till the dreams of young imagination shall vanish, and the deepest sympathies of love and hope shall be chilled for ever. While other works are extolled, admired, and reviewed, these will be loved and wept over. Their author, in the evening of his days, may truly feel that he has not lived in vain. Gentle hearts shall ever owe to him their sweetest tears, and blend their thought of him among their remembrances of the benefactors of their youth. And when the fever of the world "shall hang upon the beatings of their hearts," how often will their spirits turn to him, who, as he cast a soft seriousness over the morning of life, shall assist in tranquillizing its noontide sorrows! [*New Monthly Mag.*

PUNCTUALITY.

An English traveller, who has just published an account of a journey in Holland, makes the following remark: "The Dutch are as punctual as they are industrious and

parsimonious. The diligences and treckschuyts start at the time appointed, during the striking of the clock. If you are told that the hour is seven, you may be sure to be away before the fourth of the seven strokes are sounded. The precision at which the hour of arrival is fixed, is such that you may depend upon it within a few minutes; and the same reliance may be placed on the period of finishing the journey, whether it be made by water or by land." This is a most valuable trait of character in that people, and is well worthy of universal imitation. There are a considerable proportion of mankind who are always behind hand. Let them make ever so many or so important engagements, as it respects punctuality in time, they invariably fail. Many such have fallen within our observation; and the same want of exactness in point of time attends all their concerns. If they go to church upon the sabbath, they will not get there until after the services have commenced; and this happens to good, sober, pious Christians, as well as others—and it happens all their lives. Such is the inveteracy of this habit of negligence, that people, who would be shocked at the irreverence of any person who should so far forget himself as to disturb the devotions of a religious congregation by speaking, or in any other thoughtless manner, seem to have no idea that their entrance into the church in the midst of the most solemn exercises, has any thing in it improper or censurable.

The same thing occurs in the attendance of such persons upon public business, where they are associated with others. At meetings, appointed for the transaction of such business, if any considerable number are necessary to its accomplishment, there is often, and indeed usually, as much time spent in waiting for *a quorum*, as is consumed in attending to the object of the meeting. This is a great hardship upon those who make a point of being strictly punctual, for it costs them a double quantity of time. And these *behind hand persons*, if they would only suffer themselves to reflect, could not fail to remember, that punctuality would cost themselves no more time than the want of it. Judging from considerable experience and observation, we are very well convinced, that about as much time is spent in waiting for dilatory people, as is necessary for transacting the business immediately in view when appointments for the purpose are made.

Espriella, if we do not mistake the writer, mentions his having taken passage in a stage coach at York, in England, which was to start at a certain hour. A few minutes before the time every thing was prepared, the passengers took their seats, the coachman mounted his box, took the reins and his whip, but did not move. Upon being inquired of why he did not start, as every thing was ready, he replied, *he was waiting for the Minster*—which meant the cathedral church of that name. In a minute or two the secret was explained, the Minster clock began to strike, and before it had finished the carriage was on its way. We have no doubt that this habit in the driver made every body who intended to make use of his vehicle strictly punctual. If, however, instead of starting at the moment, he had practised waiting five minutes, occasionally, there would have been much delay and vexation, by the dilatoriousness of these behind hand persons of whom we are speaking. We scarcely ever recollect to have been on the wharf when a steam boat was casting off, without finding some person left, or running with breathless speed to get aboard, being a few minutes *too late*. Such persons, when they find themselves safe on the deck, will almost always look at their watches, and find it *a few minutes later than they imagined*, or their watches a little too slow, or something else is made chargeable with the evil; when the honest truth is, *they are naturally or habitually behind hand.*

It is not easy to imagine, unless our attention has been particularly turned to the subject, how much time is lost, and how much a man's affairs suffer, from this dilatory disposition. It will more or less run through and affect all his concerns. A dilatory man is perpetually in a hurry. His business always drives him; and business transacted in a hurry, is rarely well done. We once knew a respectable mechanic, whose habit of punctuality was such, that in carrying on his trade quite extensively for more than forty years, he never disappointed a single customer by not having his work done at the time appointed; he never failed of sitting down to his meals within five minutes of the time; he made his family, as well as his workmen, conform strictly to his rules of punctuality; and it hardly need be added, that he always supported the fairest reputation as a man of business, and that he acquired an independent property beyond the handsome support of a large and expensive family. [*N. Y. Daily Adv.*

THE PROMPTER—NO. VIII.

He does not work it right.

What a vulgar saying the Prompter has selected for his text in this number! Yet these vulgar sayings are often full of good sense.

I knew a young man who left the army with an invincible attachment to gambling. He followed it closely till he had lost most of his wages—he then purchased a shop of goods, mostly on credit—he had his nightly frolics—*he kept it up*—he was a blood of the first rate—his goods were soon gone and not paid for—his creditors called, and he began to cry *peccavi*—in fact, *he did not work it right.* But his friends helped him out of six scrapes, yea out of seven. At length necessity broke his spirit—it tamed him—he married, became a man of business, recovered his lost credit—and now *he works it right.*

I often say to myself, as I ride about the country, what a pity it is our farmers *do not work it right.* When I see a man turn his cattle into the street to run at large and waste their dung, during a winter's day, I say this man does not work it right. Ten loads of good manure, at least, is lost in a season by this slovenly practice—and all for what? For nothing, indeed, but to ruin a farm.

So when I see cattle, late in the fall or early in the spring, rambling in a meadow or mowing field, pouching the soil and breaking the grass roots, I say to myself, this man *does not work it right.*

So when I see a barn yard with a drain to it, I say the owner does not work it right; for how easy is it to make a yard hollow, or lowest in the middle, to receive all the wash of the sides, which will be thus kept dry for the cattle. The wash of the yard, mixed with any kind of earth, or putrid straw, is the best manure in the world—yet how much do our farmers lose! In fact they do not work it right.

When I pass along the road and see a house with clapboards hanging an end with one nail, and old hats and cloths stuffed into the broken windows, and the fences tumbling down or destroyed, I conclude the owner loves rum—in truth, he does not work it right.

When I see a man frequently attending courts, I suspect *he does not work it right.*

When I see a countryman often go to the retailer's with a bottle, or the labouring man carrying home a bottle of rum after his work is done on Saturday night, I am certain the man *does not work it right.*

When a farmer divides a farm of one hundred acres of land among five or six sons, and builds a small house for each, and sets them to work for a living on a little patch of land, I question whether *he works it right.* And when these sons are afterwards unable to live on these mutilated farms, and are compelled by a host of children to go to work by the day to get bread, I believe they are all convinced that *they have not worked it right.*

When a man tells me his wife will not consent to go from home into new settlements, where he may have land enough, and live like a nabob, and therefore he is obliged to sit down on a corner of his father's farm, I laugh at him, and some time or other he will own *he has not worked it right.*

A man in trade, who is not punctual in his payments, certainly *does not work it right;* nor does the man, who trusts his goods to *any body* and *every body.*

Whether in Congress or a kitchen, the person who *talks much* is *little regarded.* Some members of Congress then certainly *do not work it right.* A hint to the *wise* is sufficient; but twenty hints have not been sufficient to silence the clamorous tongues of some congressional spouters.

Family government gives complexion to the manners of a town: but when we see, every where, children profane, indelicate, rude, saucy, we may depend on it, their *parents do not work it right.*

I once knew a young man of excellent hopes, who was deeply in love with a lady. The first time he had an opportunity to whisper in her ear, and before he had made any impression on her heart in his favour, he sighed out his sorrowful tale to her in full explanation. The lady was frightened—she soon rid herself of the distressed lover—she said, *he did not work it right.*

FROM BLACKWOOD'S EDINBURGH MAGAZINE.

Opinion in regard to British Metaphysicians, by the Germans.—At the last Leipzig fair, many new works on moral philosophy and metaphysics made their appearance. A hasty glance of several of these, enabled us to understand the general opinion entertained in Germany of the metaphysicians in Great Britain. Reid, they say, did little; Dugald Stewart is not an original writer, but eminently distinguished by the beauty and grace of his style. Gregory,

the physician, ingenious, but not original. Thomas Brown, a man of great promise as a bold and original thinker, and brings forcibly to recollection the period of the deep thinking Hume. Darwin a visionary. Paley an amiable but superficial writer. Playfair, the mathematician, a writer of powerful metaphysical articles in the Edinburgh Review.

Jameson's Marine Thermometer.—From many experiments made of late years by scientific persons, there seems every reason to believe that the thermometer is an instrument of far greater importance to navigators than it has been generally supposed.

The late celebrated Dr. Franklin was the first person who noticed the great difference between the temperature of the water on the North American coast, in and out of soundings, and suggested the use of a thermometer as an indicator of an approach to that dangerous shore, as it had been uniformly found that the nearer any vessel approximated the shore, the colder the temperature of the water became.

Afterwards colonel Jonathan Williams, of Philadelphia, endeavoured, with some success, to call the attention of seafaring men to the importance of the thermometer as a nautical instrument; and satisfactorily succeeded in showing, that no vessel on board of which a thermometer is, can possibly be cast away on the coast of the United States, without at least a sufficient warning of the approach to danger, to allow of its being avoided, unless the ship should be so entirely disabled as to be totally unmanageable.

The statements of Dr. Franklin and colonel Williams applied only to the coasts of North America: and hence it came to be generally supposed that the increased heat of the sea, when out of soundings, was caused by the Gulf stream current, which, issuing from the Gulf of Mexico, sweeps to the northward along the coasts of the United States: it has of late, however, been established, that the decreasing temperature of the water, as any vessel approaches the coasts of Spain, Portugal, and Barbary, is sufficient to give warning to any attentive navigator of his approach to these coasts; and it seems probable, from the experiments of Mr. Davy (brother to the celebrated Sir Humphrey), that the thermometer will be found to point out, not only the proximity of land, but also that of extensive banks, &c. in all places.

A person whose experience had shown him, that in quitting the American coasts, there was an increase of twelve degrees of Fahrenheit's scale in the temperature of the sea in a few hours' run from the mouth of the Delaware, found also on approaching the coast of Portugal, that the mercury in the tube of the thermometer sunk from 69 degrees, at which it stood in the open sea, to 60½ degrees, when his ship was about three or four miles from Cape St. Vincent; and subsequently, that in beating through the Straits of Gibraltar, with a contrary wind, the mercury in the thermometer rose and fell in proportion to the distance he was from the Spanish or African shores, ranging from 68 degrees, at which it stood in the middle of the strait, to 61 degrees, which was the lowest to which it sunk on the African side; and on the Spanish shore it never fell lower than 64 degrees; which is easily accounted for, as the ship was never so near that shore, it being considered advisable to keep at a distance from the shoals, &c. near Tariffa.

The person already mentioned, having discovered many objections to the mode of using the thermometer, recommended by colonel Williams, and having had several thermometers broken, applied to different mechanics in various places to construct a marine thermometer case for him, which would protect the instrument, and facilitate its use, but unsuccessfully, until he some time since applied to Messrs. Gardner and Jameson, mathematical instrument makers in Glasgow. Mr. Jameson, of that firm, invented and made a case, which not only prevents the thermometer enclosed in it from being injured, but admits and retains water from any depth which may be desired; so that the results obtained by the experiments made with it are exempted from any chance of being influenced by the solar rays in summer weather or warm latitudes, or by the chill of the air in winter or cold climates, as by an ingenious contrivance the bulb of the thermometer is kept immersed in a column of water admitted and retained by the case, from the greatest depth to which it has been sunk.

Mr. Purdy, the hydrographer of London, has expressed his opinion of Mr. Jameson's invention in very flattering terms, as have also many highly respectable scientific and nautical men.

Aurum Milium.—Mr. N. Mill has discovered a new metal resembling gold, and possessing some of its best qualities, which he calls aurum milium. In colour, it resembles 60s. gold, and is nearly as heavy

in specific gravity as jewellers' gold. It is malleable, and has the invaluable property of not easily tarnishing. It is very hard and sonorous, and requires care in the working. The price of it being from 4s. to 4s. 6d. an ounce, will not be an obstacle to its general use; and for beauty there is not any metal that exceeds it, and it is susceptible of an exquisite polish.

Description of Norway.—The following account of the appearance of Norway, as distinguished from Sweden, is given by Bedemar;—Norway, he says, consists principally of a mountain-basin, surrounded by the remains of an elevated platform, the exterior border of which, jagged by deep cuts, and ascending to a great height, lies around the whole of the ridge of the principal range of mountains. The sea has penetrated to this border, through the abysses which have been opened; and the western storms, and an ill judged industry, have circumscribed within the vallies the scanty woods which run through the basin itself. On the outside descend only mountain torrents, short in their course: the large streams belong to the centre of the land. * * * * They form many beautiful and high waterfalls, and many large lakes in their course. On the coasts only are a few towns to be found;—the rest of the country is covered with insulated dwellings; brown log-houses, surrounded by a few cornfields and extensive meadows, small and independent possessions, suited to the independent and sturdy character of the people. In the vicinity of rivers, which are at times nearly invisible from the quantity of timber floating down them, numerous saw mills are to be seen; and a few iron and copper works are to be met with in the spaces cleared from wood. Along the sea shore, habitations, solitary or in groups, surrounded with implements for fishing, and curing fish, appear like so many nests in the green hollows among the rocks. Over all this, an atmosphere generally clear, delightful, and invigorating, is spread as far as the 69—70 of latitude, after which we meet with deep and impenetrable fogs, a sealike lead, and the melancholy silence of an uninterrupted wilderness.

RAFT OF THE MEDUSA.

London, July 18.

The dreadful story of the wreck of the Medusa, French frigate, and of the horrid circumstances through which 135 out of 150 miserable creatures perished on the raft which their inhuman companions cut adrift, and left to the mercy of the storm, is well known to the public. This subject has been painted on a very large scale by a Mr. Jerricault, and the exhibition of the picture opened yesterday at Mr. Bullock's Egyptian Hall. The artist has taken the thirteenth day on the raft for his time, and the moment that when the Argus sloop is discovered by the survivors, and when their last remaining strength is exhausted to make those signals which succeeded in obtaining their rescue. This work far excels any thing we have ever seen of the school to which it belongs. The subject, though horrible, is not disgusting, and for anatomical skill we hardly know a superior production. There is more of nature, of the grand simplicity of art, and of true expression, than is usual with the highest of the modern French painters; and Mr. Jerricault has displayed the deepest tragic powers in the various groups into which he has thrown the poor remnant of sufferers. The dying, the dead, the despairing, and the hoping, are well portrayed, and we think the public would be much gratified with a sight of this performance alone. It is, however, surrounded in the gallery by many fine paintings.

WEIGHT OF GREAT CHARACTERS,

Weighed at the Scales at West Point, August 19, 1783.

General Washington	209 lbs.
General Lincoln	224
General Knox	280
General Huntington	132
General Greaton	166
Colonel Swift	219
Colonel Michael Jackson	252
Colonel Henry Jackson	238
Lieutenant Colonel Huntington	232
Lieutenant Colonel Cobb	186
Lieutenant Colonel Humphreys	221

The above memorandum was found in the pocket book of a deceased officer of the Massachusetts line.

Curiosity respecting the form, physiognomy and stature of eminent men is universal; biographers usually attempt to gratify their readers by detailing all such minute circumstances; yet who knows the weight of general Bonaparte, or the duke of Wellington? Those who read their biography would be gratified to know the cubic inches and exact dimensions of the clay tenements occupied by such martial spirits.

The average weight of these eleven distinguished revolutionary officers, is 214 lbs. and exceeds, we think, that of an equal number of any other nation. [*Salem Gaz.*

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

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FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

From Say's Traité d'Economie Politique.

PUBLIC EXPENSES.

It has almost always been believed, that the values paid by society for public services, returned to it under other forms, and it has been thought that this could be proved by saying: *That which the government or its agents receive, they restore in expending.* This is an error, and one of which the consequences have been deplorable, as they have drawn on erroneous dilapidations committed without remorse. The value furnished by the taxable inhabitant, is given gratuitously; the government makes use of it for buying labour, the objects of consumption, products in a word which have an equal value. A purchase is not a restitution.*

In whatever manner this operation is presented, however it may be complicated in its execution, it will always by analysis reduce itself to what has just been said. A product consumed is always a value lost, whoever may be the consumer; and it is lost without compensation by him who receives no return: but here we must regard as a return, the advantage which the payer of the tax receives from the public servant, or from the consumption that is made for the public utility.

If public expenses affect the sum of riches in precisely the same manner as private expenses, the same principles of economy ought to preside over both. There are no more two kinds of economy, than there are two kinds of honesty or two kinds of morality. If a government, like a private man, makes consumptions from which result the production of a value superior to the value consumed, it exercises a productive industry; if the value consumed has left no product, it is a value lost in either case, but which in its dissipation may very well have rendered the service that was expected from it. The munitions of war, provisions, the time and the labour of the civil and military officers who have served for the defence of the state, no longer exist, though they may have been imperfectly employed; it is with these things as with the goods and services that a family has consumed for its use. This employment has presented no other advantage than the satisfaction of a want; if the want did not exist, the consumption and the expense have been an evil which has not been compensated. It is the same with the consumption of the state: to consume for the sake of consuming, to expend upon system, to call for a service for the advantage of giving to it a salary, to destroy a thing in order to have an occasion of paying for it, is an extravagance in a government as well as in a private man, in a small state as well as in a large one, in a republic as well as in a monarchy. An extravagant government is even more culpable than a wasteful individual, for the latter consumes only what belongs to him, while a government is not a proprietor; it is only the administrator of the public fortune.†

What ought we to think then of the principles proposed by many authors, who have endeavoured to prove that private fortunes and the public fortune are of very different natures; that the fortune of a private man to be sure is increased by saving, but that the public fortune, on the con-

* Mr. Robert Hamilton, in his excellent work in English, upon the national debt, has shown the ridiculousness of the assertion that I oppose, in comparing it to that of a robber, who, having despoiled the strong box of a merchant, should say to him: *I am going to employ this money in buying goods from you. What do you complain of? Will you not have all your money; and besides, is it not an encouragement to your industry?* The encouragement given by a government which expends the money received for taxes, is exactly the same.

† Every government which calls itself the proprietor of the fortunes of individuals, or which acts as if it were, is a usurper: now usurpation is not a right but a fact, otherwise a robber sufficiently strong or adroit to lay hold of the goods of others, would when he had become the weaker, be nevertheless the legitimate proprietor, and might properly dispense with restitution.

trary, receives an increase from the augmentation of consumption; and who have thence deduced this false and dangerous consequence, that the rules which serve for the administration of a private fortune, and those which ought to direct the administration of the public finances, are not only different, but entirely opposite.

If such principles appeared in books only, and were never reduced to practice, we might console ourselves, and carelessly suffer them to swell the mass of printed errors; but how should we lament for humanity, when we hear them professed by men eminent in station, in talents and in learning. What do I say? When we see them reduced to practice by those who are armed with power, and who can lend to error and absurdity the power of bayonets and cannon!*

Madame de Maintenon relates, in a letter to the cardinal de Noailles, that one day when she was exhorting the king to give more considerable alms, Louis XIV. answered, "*A king gives alms in expending freely.*" A terrible and memorable saying, which shows how ruin may be reduced to principles.† Bad principles are more hurtful than even perversity, because we pursue them contrary to our own interests, which we misunderstand, and because we follow them longer without remorse or reflection. If Louis XIV. had believed that the gratification of his vanity was the only fruit of his magnificence, and the satisfaction of his ambition the only end of his conquests, he was an honest man, and might have reproached himself with them and put an end to them: he might have paused from a consideration of his own interest; but he firmly believed that by his profusion he was rendering a service to the state and consequently to himself, and he stopped short only at the moment when he was about to fall into misery and humiliation.‡

Sound ideas upon economy were so little entertained by the soundest heads, even in the eighteenth century, that the king of Prussia, Frederick II., a man so desirous of discovering truth, so capable of perceiving and so worthy of protecting it, wrote thus to D'Alembert to justify his wars:—"My numerous armies make money circulate, and spread among the provinces, with an equal distribution, the subsidies that the people furnish to the government." No, (it must be again repeated) the subsidies furnished to the government by the provinces, do not return there. Whether they are paid in money or in kind, they are changed into provisions and munitions of war, and

* It is easy to perceive that this passage and many others were written under a military *regime*, which had arrogated to itself the right of exhausting all the resources of the nation, and the sole privilege of speaking to the people to prove to them that it was perfectly well done.

† Some sound minds, such as Fenelon, Vauban, and others, perceived indistinctly that this system led to ruin; but could not prove it, on account of not knowing what constitutes the production and consumption of riches. Vauban, in his *Dixme Royale*, says that "if France is so miserable, it is not to the inclemency of the air, nor to the fault of the people, nor to the sterility of the land, that we must attribute it; for the weather is delightful, the inhabitants laborious, expert, full of industry, and very numerous; but to the wars which have so long agitated it, and to defects in economy which we do not sufficiently understand." Fenelon, in many excellent pages of his Telemachus, has given us to understand the same truth; but they might and did in fact pass for declamation, because Fenelon was not prepared to prove them rigorously.

‡ When Voltaire says, in speaking of the vainglorious buildings of Louis XIV. that those buildings have cost the state nothing, and that they serve to make money circulate, it only proves that to those matters our greatest geniuses have been strangers. Voltaire sees nothing but the sums of money in this operation; and the money not making in fact any part of the annual revenue and consumption, when we see nothing but this commodity, we see no loss in the greatest profusion. But if we pay attention to it, we shall find that according to this mode of computation, there is nothing consumed in a country, for the amount of its money is at the close of the year nearly the same as at the beginning. The historian should have recollected, that the 900 millions of our money expended by Louis XIV. upon the chateau of Versailles only, were originally products created by the painful industry of the French people, and belonged to them; changed by them into money for the payment of their taxes, and then exchanged for building materials, for paintings and gilding, and consumed under these latter forms for the gratification of the vanity of a single man. The money served only as an auxiliary commodity, suited to facilitate the exchange of the products of those who paid taxes, for materials, &c.; and the result of this pretended circulation has been the destruction of a value of 900 millions, in compensation for which we have a palace to be continually repaired, and gardens to walk in.

Lands even, although less fugitive than money, are consumed, or at least their value is. I have heard it said that France, after the revolution, had lost nothing by the sale of the national domains, because they had all passed into the hands of Frenchmen. But the capitals paid to the state as the price of this purchase have left the hands of those who acquired them—where are they now? They are consumed, they are lost.

under this form are consumed and destroyed by people who do not replace them, because they produce no value.*

It was fortunate for Prussia that the actions of Frederick II. were not according to his principles. He did more good to his country by the economy of his administration, than the evil produced by his wars.

If the consumption made by nations or by the governments which represent them, occasion a loss of value and consequently of riches, it is only justifiable so far as there results to the nation an advantage equal to the sacrifice it has cost them. The whole skill of the administration consists then in perpetually and judiciously comparing the extent of the sacrifices imposed, with the advantages thence resulting to the state; and every sacrifice disproportioned to this advantage, I do not hesitate to say, is a folly or a crime of the administration.

What shall we say then if the wanton expenses of bad governments are not confined to dissipating the substance of the people,† and if many of their consumptions, far from procuring an equivalent return, prepare on the contrary misfortunes without number; if the most extravagant and most culpable enterprises are the sequel of the most criminal exactions, and if nations almost always pay with their blood the privilege of furnishing money from their purses?

It is melancholy that the name of declamation should be applied to truths which good sense is forced to repeat often, because folly and passion obstinately misunderstand them.

* For the furnishing of an army, two values enter into the hands of the government or of its agents. 1st, The value of the subsidies paid by the subjects. 2d, The value of the commodities procured by the contractors. Those who furnish the first value (the contributors) receive no compensation; those who furnish the second (the contractors) receive an equivalent, which is their payment; but this equivalent does not justify writers in saying that the government gives out with one hand what it receives with the other; that in all this there is nothing but circulation, and that the nation has lost nothing. What the government has received is equal to two, and what it has returned is equal to but one. The loss of the second unit falls upon the contributor, and as the aggregate fortune of all the contributors forms the fortune of the nation, the national wealth is diminished by the amount of the consumptions of the government, unless the government reproduce something by public establishments.

† We have seen in a former part of the work, that population always proportions itself to production; and that if the products of industry are prevented from multiplying, men are prevented from being born; that they are massacred by the pillage of capital, by checks upon industry, and by drying up the sources of production. Under a bad government, this causes the death of more people than wars, however bloody they may be.

Agriculture.

On the Manufacture of Flour.

We have heard an opinion expressed that the present mode of converting wheat into flour deprives the flour of a large portion of the nourishment which was secured to it by the former modes of manufacture. The grinding has got to be so very close as to exclude, it is said, many parts of the grain which our heavenly Parent intended should help in the constitution of its nourishment. We have not examined, by any tests that can be relied on, to find out the truth of this opinion; but it appears to be well worthy of inquiry. Every thing having relation to health is so important, and applies so equally to us all, as to make such a subject an affair of general interest.

We do not intend to intimate that this is chargeable upon the millers, or those who manufacture wheat into flour; but rather that they have yielded to the desire of the people to have flour as *white* as it can be made. If there is any thing unsubstantial, therefore, in the flour which we are eating every day, it is to be attributed to a habit we have got into of refining upon almost every thing. It is the *eye* in this instance which appears to have led us astray; for the *taste* as well as the *health* (or feeling) is loser by it. There is certainly not the same sweetness in our *modern close-ground* flour that we used to find in this delightful mean of support under the old system of grinding.

We should be gratified if some person would furnish the tests on this subject, accompanied by some practical remarks. If this branch of our daily support can be made *sweeter*, and more *wholesome*, every body will say—let us have it so.

[*Messenger*.

FROM THE PLOUGH BOY.

FLEMISH HUSBANDRY.

Sir—I shall now, as promised, give some details respecting the Flemish mode of cultivation.

I. *Manure*.—A Fleming spares no cost‡

‡ It is within my knowledge (says Vanderstræten) that villages of 6000 acres of surface, expend in the purchase of dung and other manures, more than 26,000*l.* sterling, besides the

nor labour to obtain this necessary article. What his domestic arrangements do not produce, he supplies in the neighbouring towns and villages; but it is chiefly upon his cattle that he relies. Of these he rears an immense number; five times more, in proportion, than is done by the English farmer, by which he obtains at least triple the quantity of dung. He is equally careful to preserve the *liquid* portions of this manure, which contain the greatest proportion of fertilizing juices. For that purpose, the stalls and stables where the cattle are kept, are paved with a cement impervious to water; a precaution by which no part of the urine of the animals is lost; while dung pits to which there is a communication by little channels from the cattle stalls and privies, are formed and lined with the same cement, to receive this valuable deposit. This liquid manure is commonly reserved to enrich the ground during the second and third year's cropping, an abundance of the more solid manure having been spread the first year of the course.

Nor is the Flemish farmer indifferent to the conversion of weeds, waste straw, and other vegetable matter into manure. These he collects, and disposes in such a manner as to produce fermentation, by which the whole mass is decomposed and converted into a fertilizing substance.

II. *Digging.*—Under this head I shall content myself with the following quotations from Vanderstræten's survey:

"In Flanders, before the introduction of the operation of digging, few lands, or rather none, had a stratum of vegetable mould of eighteen inches deep. It is art and industry which have created this. The greater part of her beautiful fields were then only moving sands, or soils even still more ungrateful. Observe then the methods which were used to raise them to their great fertility. In the beginning they were dug to a smaller depth, and upon the moving sands was spread a great quantity of dung, of which the grosser parts, as the straw which was mixed with them, were decomposed into fertile soil. It was the same with the grain and stubble left by the crops, with the noxious weeds and roots. All these vegetable remains began to give fertility and consistence to the sands; and in proportion to the fertility and consistence which the soil acquired, the spade was pushed to a greater depth.

"The sand, of which the spade increased the vegetable stratum, was already no longer barren, because it was enriched with the juices of the dung, which the rain had carried below the depth to which the spade had not yet reached. The abundance of dung and the annual supply of vegetable matter, changed, in the end, this moving sand into the blackest mould which can possibly be seen, in some places of a depth of eighteen inches, and in others of two feet!

"The methods taken with the other soils, more ungrateful still, were nearly the same. The amelioration which the Flemish agriculture produces in soils almost sterile, is annually visible; but in all cases, the greatest possible degree of fertility can only be the work of time. This amelioration, however, may be produced very rapidly in soils which have, at their commencement, only four inches of vegetable mould, and which repose on a stratum of good earth, though rendered as hard as a rock by the ploughshare. A similar low stratum existed in Flanders before the introduction of digging.

"Periodically, every three, four or seven years, the spade, in Flanders, raises upon the surface a stratum of earth, which, under the stratum that has produced the crops, has enjoyed a fallow of three, four, or seven years, and in consequence, has yielded no crop itself; a stratum already fertilized in some degree by the decomposition of the weeds which grew upon it till the moment when it was buried, and enriched with the salts of the dung, caused by the rains to filtrate during the interval through the upper stratum. This stratum may, therefore, in consequence be regarded as a virgin earth, possessing the most extreme degree of fertility, through the manure it has received, and to which more is now to be added.

"The operation of digging, especially in light soils, is performed with great rapidity. A good workman can dig in the space of a day, the twenty-fifth part of an acre, to the depth of eighteen inches at one stroke of the spade. He thus buries the upper layer, and brings to the surface the lower layer, which has produced no crop for three or for seven years, nor the same crop for six or for fourteen years."

I shall embrace the earliest opportunity of resuming this interesting subject. Yours, respectfully, GEORGE HOUSTON.

New York, May 1, 1820.

enormous quantity of dung from their own cattle. This expense is immense, but it is returned with the greatest usury.

OXEN, PREFERRED TO HORSES.

Wenham, (Mass.) April 22, 1820.

Dear Sir—Since the perusal of your letter of the 3d instant, in reply to mine on the subject of ox teams, there has occurred to my recollection a paper, to the same point, in the first volume of the Memoirs of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture; it is a letter from William Ashford to John Vaughan, esq. Mr. Ashford says: "There is another thing in which I was wrong in not taking your advice, viz. not keeping oxen instead of horses: this spring all my horses became sick, and I was forced to buy a pair of oxen. I supposed I should be tired of them; but on the contrary, I am tired of horses; as I find that with my two oxen, I can do more work than I could with four horses, and with half the expense. I have worked horses for forty years, and if I had used oxen in their place, they would have put five hundred pounds in my pocket. My oxen go to the lime kiln once a week, twenty-one miles, in the morning, and return the next day in the forenoon: after resting two hours, they go to work: horses cannot do this."

This testimony of an experienced farmer of Pennsylvania, whose prejudices were opposed to the use of oxen for labour, and where horses, with very few exceptions, constitute the farmer's teams, is peculiarly valuable. I am, dear sir, with great esteem, your obedient servant, T. Pickering.

S. W. Pomeroy, esq.

English Practical Agriculture.

An interesting detail from Rev. E. Cartwright will be found in the fourth volume of communications to the Board of Agriculture, which is conclusive, as to the application of salt as a manure for potatoes. It appears from this communication, that the experiment could not have been tried on a soil better adapted to give impartial results. Of ten different manures which were resorted to, most of them of known and acknowledged efficacy, one only excepted, *salt* was superior to them all. Its effects, when combined with soot, were extraordinary, yielding in a row two hundred and forty potatoes, whilst one hundred and fifty only were produced from the row manured with lime. It was observable also, where salt was applied, whether by itself or in combination, the roots were free from that scabbiness which often infects potatoes, and from which none of the other beds (and there were in the field near forty more than made part of the experiments) were altogether exempt.

Miscellany.

FROM THE NEW YORK STATESMAN.

Lake George, Aug. 1820.

My dear H.—I arrived at this village a little before ten this evening. A brief account of my ride hither, although pregnant with no remarkable adventures, may not be wholly destitute of interest. We did not leave Saratoga till late in the morning, and the day was so excessively hot, that we were compelled to linger along the road, and frequently seek shelter from the fervours of the sky, and the clouds of dust, in which we were sometimes enveloped. Hence, we were nine or ten hours in travelling twenty-six miles, the distance between this place and Saratoga, which is commonly travelled in four or five hours.

The road from Saratoga to Glen's Falls, though by no means bad, is extremely dull and tedious. It afforded me no pleasure in *reality*, and could afford you none in *description*. For the greater part of the way it leads over a light, sandy plain, covered with dwarfish pine and other stinted shrubbery, which clearly indicate the meagreness and sterility of the soil. Here and there, indeed, you find a fertile spot, watered by a brook, well cultivated, and adorned with a neat dwelling house, or comfortable tavern. The only object to relieve the eye and divert the mind, in passing over this solitary plain of 17 miles, is a range of lofty hills, which heave in sight soon after you leave the village of Saratoga, and which extend along in an unbroken chain on your left, at the distance of three or four miles from the road, till they are interrupted by the passage of the Hudson at Glen's Falls. These mountains are a spur of the Allegheny, which cross the Hudson in three different places, and thence run in a northeasterly direction through the New England states.

At about six o'clock in the evening we emerged from the woods of Saratoga, and arrived in sight of Glenville, a view of which from the brow of the hill on the southwest side of the river is romantic and pleasant. The village stands on a high bank on the northeast side of the Hudson. Many of its houses and stores are well built and handsome, and it has the appearance of being a place of considerable business. You do not see the river, which passes between you and the village, till you

are warned of your approach to it by the roar of the cataract. The falls burst suddenly upon your view, and present one of the grandest scenes I have ever witnessed. The channel of the river is divided by an island of rock, which forms a natural abutment for a strong wooden bridge, that is thrown across the stream directly over the falls. On this little island there is a dwelling house, where the tollgatherer and his family reside, and in front of it a small garden, which however appeared to be neglected and choked with weeds. At certain seasons of the year the waters dash around the very foundations of the house, and the crash of ice, timber and uprooted trees tumbling down the precipice, and the constant thunder of the cataract, shake the island to its centre. We halted upon the island, and after taking a view of the falls from both arches of the bridge, we descended down the cliffs to the bed of the river below the falls. The water was extremely low, which circumstance, although it detracted somewhat from the grandeur of the cataract, enabled us to take a fine skeleton view of the rocks. The banks of the river are here perpendicular, and consist of horizontal strata of limestone, which are so regular as to resemble the artificial stone work in the locks of a canal. But the rocks about the island, and in the bed of the river at the precipice, are piled together in rude and shapeless masses, which are rugged and cavernous. We crept through two of the caverns or fissures the distance of 20 or 30 feet, and found by the numerous inscriptions on the rock, that we were not the only visitants who had passed these damp and gloomy recesses. Since I was there, I have conversed with a lady from Georgia, who told me she had strayed from the rest of her party, groped her way alone through one of these arches, and at its termination near the channel, had taken a view of the abyss which yawns below. It is said there are holes at the foot of the cataract, which have never yet been fathomed, and it is probable they descend deep into the bowels of the earth. In the arch of one of these caves I observed a swallow had hung her nest, and the boy, who was our guide on this occasion, informed me, that she had there unmolested hatched and reared her young.

The height of these falls is not more than 50 feet; but the precipice is so irregular, and the water is so often buffeted and tumbled from side to side by the rocks, which project in all directions, that I am told the view is little inferior to that of Niagara. This descent of "the noble North," is not less useful than it is picturesque and grand. The shores are covered with mills of all kinds; and immense quantities of lumber are here prepared for market. We saw many hands at work about the falls in rafting, which was to me a novel scene. They were employed in rolling timber from the rocks upon which it had lodged, and the dexterity with which they glided through the rapids in small skiffs, and drew to the shore the lumber as it descended, was truly astonishing. From the stone which here constitutes the banks and bed of the river, great quantities of excellent lime are manufactured, kilns of which are seen all along the shore.

Fascinated by the novelties and charms of this romantic spot, we lingered about it, thoughtless of the approach of night, and the distance we had to travel before reaching this place. The sun was throwing his last beams upon the village spire, as we took leave of Glenville, and plunged into the almost uninhabited wilderness, which lies between the Hudson and the head of Lake George. Although there has been a tolerable road between these two places for about seventy years, it cannot be said to be more than tolerable now. Of this I judge rather by the sense of *feeling* than of *sight;* for it was so dark that the stumps and stones could not be seen, though they were sensibly felt. The road has been so often shifted from side to side, to shun the deep ruts formed by heavy timber carts, which are constantly passing from the head of the lake to Fort Edward, that a stranger might as well attempt to thread the mazes of a labyrinth, as to follow the newest and most improved track. We accidentally fell into the wake of one of these lumber wagons, and found the man at the helm a skilful and safe pilot, although at the expense of a little dust, and the creaking and rattling of wheels. I have been told since my arrival here, that a trifling sum would be sufficient to put this road in complete repair, and as it is found that the number of visitants is rapidly increasing, many improvements are in contemplation.

The whole of the region lying between Lakes George and Champlain and the Hudson, is celebrated in the annals of the old French war. There was a military road from Glen's Falls as early as 1750; and this was the most common route from Canada to the settlements on the North River. Along this path—the very track which the road now follows—many eventful battles have been fought, and the soil is conse-

crated by the blood, and hallowed by the graves of our forefathers. On your right, as you travel north, and at the distance of four miles from the head of the lake, is French mountain, a rugged and precipitous pile, which rises to the height of more than a thousand feet, and the base of which approaches within a stone's throw of the road. There was no moon this evening, and I could only judge of the size of this mountain by the extent of the horizon which its dim and shadowy form obscured, and of its shape by the coronet of stars which encircled and defined its brow. It was baptized in blood, and received the name of French mountain from the circumstance of a numerous party of French and Indians encamping on its very summit in the year 1755. They came up Lake George from Canada, landed on its southeastern shore, and ascended the pathless and rugged steeps. Like the clansmen of Roderick Dhu, they concealed themselves behind the crags of the rocks and the blighted shrubbery, which covers the top of the mountain, whence they had a full view of the road, and the movements of the British army, that passed along it far below them. At a favourable moment they descended with the utmost secrecy down the sides of the mountain, and suddenly fell upon their antagonists. The British and American troops fought upon the retreat, and disputed every inch of ground, till they had reached the head of the lake. The hottest of the engagement was at Bloody Pond, a little circular piece of water, eight or ten rods in diameter, close by the road side. Across this pond the contending armies long fought, and its waters were literally swollen and crimsoned with blood. A palsied old man, who lives in a small house near the base of the French mountain, informed me, that eight hundred of the combatants were drawn out of the mud and weeds of this pond, and buried upon its shores. All along the road, graves are to be seen, which are frequently opened by the plough and spade, and children amuse themselves in playing with the skulls and bones of disinterred warriors.

I had but an obscure view of Bloody Pond. It is surrounded with thick bushes, through which I could now and then catch a glimpse of its waters by the dim starlight reflected from its surface. On my return I intend to take a fuller view of it. The spectres of the gallant but forgotten dead—the spirits of the Briton and Gaul, the hardy American, and the plumed Indian, seemed to start up and meet me at every step. While groping my way over these battle grounds, I could not but reflect on the wayward and mysterious revolution of human events. Who could have supposed, that this lonely spot, in the depth of a wilderness, where there is nothing but rocks and solitudes to contend for, would ever be the theatre on which the disputes between the rival courts of St. James and St. Cloud should be decided, and on which the embattled hosts of Europe, at the distance of three thousand miles from home, should join in a bloody conflict for empire? How little did the soldiers of England and France dream, when they enrolled themselves under the banners of their respective sovereigns, that they would rally for the Brunswicks and Bourbons amidst the fastnesses of French mountain, and find a grave in wilds of which they had never heard! What statesman or general would have fixed upon these solitary woods as the arena for the contests of kings—the field of future battles, and a spot to which in after ages the language of a Roman poet would be found applicable:

"Scilicet et tempus veniet, cum finibus illis
Agricola, incurvo terram molitus aratro,
Exesa inveniet scabra rubigine pila:
Aut gravibus rastris galeas pulsabit inanes,
Grandiaque effossis mirabitur ossa sepulchris."

But I am making my ride of 26 miles longer and more tedious to you than it was to me; and I will tax your patience no farther at present than to say, that the details of this letter were picked up on the road, and that I have had no opportunity of consulting a history of the French and Indian wars in this quarter, for the purpose of ascertaining the correctness of my statements.

Two hours have enabled me to perceive, that I am safely lodged in a large, convenient, and excellent hotel. Our supper table was neatly spread and loaded with dainties. I have requested a servant to wake me at daybreak to-morrow morning, that I may see the sun rise upon the mountains and waters of Lake George.

Sincerely yours,
W——.

Otaheite.—M. Turgenieff, counsellor of state, has made a report to the Bible Society of St. Petersburg, in which it is stated, that the English missionaries have established a press at Otaheite, at which 3000 Bibles have been printed. They were all sold in the space of three days, for three gallons of cocoanut oil each. The books

of Moses, translated into the Otaheitan language, have been printed at the same press; also a catechism for the use of the inhabitants. These have been distributed gratuitously.

From the Repertory of Arts, &c.

An Account of an Experiment on the Durability of some kinds of Paints when exposed to the Weather.

Mem.—St. Helen's Auckland, Oct. 3, 1812.—Some weeks ago I procured from Mr. Ogden, of Sunderland, eight gallipots of as many sorts of paint, equally mixed with boiled oil, for the above purpose; but owing to an accident, I could not use them till now. I provided eight new brushes, that the sorts might not be intermingled. On opening the pots, I found the contents of most of them so dry that I was obliged to add boiled oil (obtained two years before of Mr. Ogden), to render them useable by the brush; they were made as equally thin as I could judge. On a cylindrical piece of old beach, turned and smooth, in divisions one inch and a half long, I proceeded as follows. The top of the cylinder was charred with a red hot poker, and a coat of boiled oil put upon it. The one inch and a half below that,

No. 1, *charred.*
2, painted with *white lead.*
3, ——— *red lead.*
4, ——— *charcoal.*
5, ——— *yellow ochre.*
6, ——— *lead colour* (lampblack and white lead).
7, ——— *calcotha*, or *crocus.*
8, ——— *left bare.*
9, ——— *lampblack.*
10, coated with *boiled oil.*

Oct. 4. Another coat was given to each.

Nov. 18. The letter W was burned in on No. 8, and the side so marked turned to the west; the pole being fixed up on a high gavel, so that the numbered parts were clear of the top. No. 10 was taken for a coat of varnish by the carpenter who fastened up the pole.

Jan. 1, 1818, took the pole down.

Nos. 9 and 10, all bare, and injured by the weather.

No. 2, the paint rather cracked.

Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9, in a good state, making a perfect cover.

June 27, 1818. The pole had been kept under cover from the first of January, and rolled in paper, and carefully brought hither (Hendon Grange, near Sunderland), about a quarter of a mile from the sea-beach, on a high bank. The pole was put up on the top of the east gavel of a granary—the W set towards the west again—the painted parts clear of the building.

In the latter end of March, 1820, the pole was blown down.

Nos. 1, 8, and 10, weather worn.

No. 2, cracked and thin: more so towards the west and south than towards the east and north.

No. 3, thin.

Nos. 4, 5, 6, and 7, perfect coverings.

No. 9, thick, with an appearance of having been more so at first.

St. Helen's Auckland stands in the vale of the Garnless, about 15 miles, in a line, from the eastern coast, according to Greenwood's last survey.

The division, No. 8, was intended for Venetian red, but it was found too dry and hard to be softened by boiled oil. Quæry, Is the basis of Venetian red, of itself, a siccative? The property of so readily becoming dry and hard may, on some occasions, be of peculiar advantage. I intend to fix up the pole again; and another, which shall include the Venetian red with the rest.

Supposing Nos. 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9, of equal durability, and of equal price, by the pound, Nos. 4 and 9 will probably go farthest, cover more surface, and, if so, be ultimately the cheapest and most preferable.

William Taylor.

April 14, 1820.

LITHOGRAPHY.

Account of Specimens executed on German Stone.

From the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c.

The silver medal was voted to Mr. Hullmandell, of Great Marlborough Street, London, for this communication.—The specimens remain in the society's repository.

The drawings I have the honour to present to the Society for promoting the Arts, Manufactures and Commerce, are the fruits of an art invented some years ago in Germany, and but lately introduced in this country, at least in its present state of perfection. Its great advantage is, that of enabling the artist to offer to the public the original production of his pencil, without having recourse to engravers. The repeated failures I met with when I first began the work, intituled, "Twenty-four Views of Italy," determined me to have a press and materials of my own; and after several failures and renewed attempts, during

the space of fourteen months, I am at last enabled to offer some drawings, which show, I hope, a decided progress in the art. I must beg leave to observe, that the twelve last of the twenty-four views of Italy, and the five drawings, marked 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, are printed entirely under my direction, and that the preparation of the stones, the chalk, the ink, &c. are entirely done by myself. With regard to the drawings, marked 6, 7, 8, and 9, the whole process, from the first preparation of the stones, as well as the *printing*, are done also by myself.

It is much to be regretted, that no good stones have hitherto been found in England. The only sort which answers tolerably well the purposes of lithography, is the white lias of Bath, but it is of too soft and porous a nature, and gives but few impressions compared with what one can obtain from German stones. The Bath stones, however, answer very well for transfers, and other inferior productions. The decided superiority of German stones over any other, added to the difficulties I met with in obtaining a *pure* Bath stone, of sufficient dimensions, have hindered me from producing a drawing done upon an English stone. All those I have the honour of offering, are printed from German stones, from the quarries of Solnhofen, in Bavaria.

The art of lithography admits of many different styles; such as ink drawings, either by lines or dots, etchings or engravings, chalk, and imitations of wood cuts, and of aquatinta. The only style, however, which has a decided superiority is that of chalk, as I think no style of copperplate engravings can give so perfect an imitation of original pencil drawings; whereas, from the natural tendency the stone has to imbibe the lithographic ink, it is impossible to obtain very fine lines, or any drawings which might not be executed with more ease by etching on copper. Very fine lines, and good imitations of copperplate engraving, may be produced by engraving upon stone; but as it requires almost as much practice as engraving upon copper, the chief advantage of lithography, viz. enabling an artist to execute his own drawings, is lost; to which must be added, the disadvantage of the great bulk and weight of the stones, which must always hinder a person from laying by engravings already executed, as can be done with copperplates. Transfers upon stones, however, with regard to writing, are extremely useful; it has also been attempted with copperplate prints, but they are but poor imitations of the original. The art of transferring writing upon stone is so very easy and simple, that I have thought it useless to offer any specimen of it. These considerations have led me to turn all my thoughts towards chalk-drawings; and it appears lithography has been considered chiefly in that light, both in Paris and Munich.

The stones proper for lithography must be of a calcareous nature, pure, hard, and of a fine grain. They must imbibe both moisture and grease with equal avidity: on this is founded the whole art of lithography.

The chalk is a composition of grease, wax, shell-lac, soap, and black. The lithographic ink is composed of the same materials, but rather softer.

The stone must be rubbed down with fine sand to a perfect level, after which it is ready to receive the drawing: when the latter is executed, a weak solution of nitric acid is thrown over the stone: this operation slightly corrodes its surface, and disposes it to imbibe moisture with more facility. While the stone is still wet, a cylinder, of about three inches in diameter, and covered with common printers' ink, is rolled over the whole surface of the stone; the wet part, of course, refuses to take the ink, while the chalk, being greasy, takes a portion of it from the roller. The stone is now ready for printing. The press consists of a box, drawn by a wheel under a wooden scraper, pressing on it with great power: after the first impression the stone is wetted afresh, again rolled over with the cylinder, drawn under the scraper, and so on. The same process is employed for ink drawings, except that the solution of aquafortis must be stronger, and the printing ink stiffer.

Transfers are made either with chalk or ink, or with both together, on a prepared paper, which is then put damp in the press, on the surface of a stone, and thrown off on it; the stone is then treated as a chalk or ink drawing, The tints of the prints marked 6, 7, 8, 9, are produced by a second stone, covered over with grease; the lights are scraped out in the places where they are intended to be; and the print being brought on the stone in its exact place, produces the effect of a drawing on coloured paper touched in with white. The drawings marked, 7, 8, 9, are printed with a third stone, to give more effect to the fore ground.

Imitations of wood cuts are produced by covering the stone with lithographic ink, and scraping out the intended lights; and

as the finer touches may be added with a hair pencil, prints far superior to wood cuts may be obtained; but the chief advantage of wood cuts, viz. printing them at the same time with the text of the book, is lost.

Engraving upon stone is performed by polishing the stone, and covering it with a thin coating of gum and black; the part intended for the drawing must be scraped out, and when finished, of course appears white instead of black; the thicker lines, as in copper, must be cut deeper, and when the whole is finished the stone is rubbed with linseed oil, which not being able to penetrate the coating of gum, only touches the stone where it is scraped away. The gum is then washed off, and the print obtained as in the other styles of printing.

The imitations of aquatinta are produced by several stones coinciding with each other, and producing a succession of flat tints, as in the drawings 6, 7, 8, 9. Drawings may also be done by mixing ink with chalk, and adding flat tints.

FROM TILLOCH'S PHILOSOPHICAL MAGAZINE.

Account of the Fall of the Glacier of the Weisshorn, which happened on the 27th of December, 1819, *and the Destruction of the Village of Randa, in the Valley of Vispach.*

The village of Randa is situated about six leagues above Vispach, on the south or right branch of the valley of Vispach, commonly known under the name of the Valley of St. Nicolas. The village is about 2400 feet from the right bank of the Visp, on the steep declivity of a hill composed of fragments, the stony ground of which has been converted by the industry of the inhabitants of Randa into pastures. Opposite to this hill is another of the same nature, above which are the rocks covered by the glacier of Randa; the highest summit of which, called the Weisshorn, is elevated about 9000 feet above the village. The breadth of the valley at the height of the village (nearly 250 feet above the river) is about half a league.

On the 27th of December, 1819, about six o'clock in the morning, towards the eastern and very steep side of the highest summit of the Weisshorn, a part of the glacier became loose, fell with a noise like thunder on the mass of ice below, and announced, by the most dreadful crash, the ravages with which the valley was threatened. At the moment when the snow and ice struck on the lower mass of the glacier, the clergyman of the place and some other persons observed a strong light,* which however immediately vanished, and every thing was again enveloped in the darkest night. A frightful hurricane, occasioned by the pressure of the air, instantly succeeded, and in a moment spread the most tremendous devastation. The fall of the glacier itself did not hurt the village, but the hurricane which it occasioned was so powerful, that it threw millstones several toises up the mountain, tore up by the roots distant larch trees of the largest size, threw blocks of ice of four cubic feet over the village a distance of half a league; it tore off the top of the stone belfry, levelled several houses with the ground, and carried the timbers of others more than a quarter of a league beyond the village into the forest. Eight goats were whirled from a stable to a distance exceeding one hundred toises; and it is remarkable that one of them was found alive. More than a quarter of a league above the valley, the barns opposite the glacier are seen stripped of their roofs.

On the whole, nine houses in the village are totally destroyed, and the other thirteen more or less damaged; eighteen granaries, eight small dwellings, two mills, and seventy-two barns are destroyed, or irreparably injured. Of twelve persons who were buried in this catastrophe, ten are still living; one was taken out dead, and the twelfth has not yet been found.

The avalanche, formed of a mixture of snow, ice, and stones, covers the fields and the pasturages situated below the village for the length of at least 2400 feet, and extends in breadth about 1000 feet. The mass which has fallen measures on an average 150 feet in height. The damage is estimated at about 20,000 francs.

It is remarkable that some barns on the other side below the glacier, which were almost covered with the fragments, were thereby protected from the hurricane, and escaped uninjured; but what is much more extraordinary, is, that only two persons lost their lives, though some families were carried away with their houses, and buried under the ruins and drifted snow. The prompt assistance afforded by the clergyman, who did not suffer personally, and of the two sextons, who escaped, contributed to save several persons.

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* It is very desirable to obtain a satisfactory information of this phenomenon, which, as far as we know, has not yet been observed in similar cases; and which, in the darkness of the night, was much too conspicuous to leave any doubt of its reality.

It is not the first time that such a disaster has befallen the village of Randa. In 1636 it was destroyed by a similar avalanche, when 36 persons lost their lives. It is said that at the time the whole glacier of the Weisshorn had fallen down. Two other less considerable falls happened in 1736 and 1786, but not precisely in the same place.

This time only a small part of the glacier fell down, and it is difficult to conceive how the rest, deprived of its support, can maintain its position. With a good telescope enormous clefts are discovered in it, which were long since perceived with much dismay by some chamois hunters; and the part of the glacier which has fallen was, as it has been affirmed, separated from the mass by similar clefts. It is therefore much to be feared that the glacier cannot much longer support itself on the very steep summit, and that the remains of the village of Randa are destined to destruction by the inevitable fall of the impending glacier. The unfortunate inhabitants must, therefore, abandon the place; and, not to remove them too far from their meadows, it is hoped that a village will be erected about half a league further up towards Tesch. But this measure will require the assistance of the government and other communes of the canton.

Translated from the French for the National Recorder.

A wolf, I don't know how, had a dog for his friend. They travelled together and talked frankly enough, for even a wolf has his moments of good humour. But every minute the conversation was interrupted: at the least noise—at the fall of a leaf or at the shadow of a bird, the wolf was alarmed and pricked up his ears, and prepared himself for combat or flight. "What mortal inquietude agitates you?" said the dog; "I think you have not a moments rest: let us walk quietly along, free from care."—"I cannot," said the ferocious animal, "all the world are my enemies." "Ah! I understand; you know how to do nothing but evil."

It is not from their sayings that we should judge of princes. A happy word is often no more than the charlatanism of a man of wit. When Bonaparte answered to the academician who wished that nobility might be a title of admission to the institute, *Ah! Monsieur de F****, leave us at least the republic of letters*—is there a single man simple enough to believe that Napoleon wished to leave some liberty in existence even for the academy? As for myself, I make account of actions and not of words. It is not the *fowl in the pot* that shows me the excellence of the character of Henry IV: I find it in this unexceptionable praise given him by Sully: "I could have wished that this prince, justly confiding in those who served him with zeal and affection, had refused all other assistance, and thrown himself into their arms. I was persuaded that after such a striking movement, England, Holland, and every Protestant power in Europe, would have made such vigorous exertions in his favour, that they would have been able to place him on the throne, without his owing any thing to the Catholics. In this case, as in every other, the king's judgment was better than mine. He saw at first, that such a kingdom as France can never be acquired by foreign assistance; and even if he had thought the thing possible, it was the hearts of the French more than their crown that he was ambitious of conquering; and he regarded as their lawful right, the rewards he would in that case have been obliged to give to their prejudice, to those who had been the authors of his elevation." *Mem. of Sully*, b. v. 1592.

Extract from a Survey of French Literature, in the Edinburgh Magazine and Literary Miscellany.

Fragments of a Course of Lectures on Literature, held at the Athenæum of Paris in the years 1806 and 1807. By M. T. de Chenier.

The Athenæum of Paris is not a public school, as from its name, one might be led to conclude. It is a society kept up by private subscription, containing political and literary reading rooms, and where, during the winter evenings, some of the most eminent professional men hold regular lectures on different branches of science and literature. None of these lectures were ever more justly celebrated than those of La Harpe. The whole collection has been since printed in 19 volumes, in 8vo, and procured to the author the flattering title of *the French Quintilian*. In fact, no critic in France had ever before shown more strength of judgment, more courage, and more attachment to the genuine rules of taste, which the revolution had entirely overthrown. It was a difficult task to succeed to La Harpe as a professor of literature at the Athenæum of Paris. Messrs. Chenier, Lemercier, Aimé Martin, took the

charge, perhaps rashly, upon them. The work we have just procured contains some fragments of M. Chenier's labours. Those fragments treat of the French poets, and romancers before Louis XII. The subject itself is rather dry and uninteresting, if not kept within due bounds; and M. Chenier is, in our eyes, too minute, besides which, he seems to forget that he has only been called upon to explain their *literary* worth or demerits. He quotes carefully, and with apparent delight, every irreligious or anti-social passage he can discover, and seizes eagerly every good or bad opportunity of proclaiming his revolutionary principles. His work has afforded us no pleasure, and very little instruction. We except, however, one part, to which we cannot help giving due praise. The volume concludes with a summary of a work on the temporal power of the see of Rome. It is difficult to give, in a few pages, a more perfect idea of a voluminous publication. If the rest of M. Chenier's critical productions had equalled this, we would have felt as much pleasure as we now have found disgust in their perusal.

Professor Cramer, at Keil, discovered two years ago in the library of the convent of St. Gallen, a MS. of the eleventh century, which contains illustrations of Juvenal, which are said to be of greater importance than any hitherto known. He has now published a specimen on occasion of the king's birthday, under the title of, Specimens novæ editionis Scholasticæ Juvenalis.

Baron Niebuhr, Prussian ambassador to the Holy See, has again discovered and published several ancient MSS. hitherto unknown. They are chiefly fragments of Cicero's Orations pro M. Fonteio, and pro C. Rabirio; a fragment of the 91st book of Livy; two works of Seneca, &c. Baron Niebuhr has dedicated this edition to the pope, by whose favour he was enabled to discover these literary treasures in the library of the Vatican.

It is said in a French paper that some gentlemen at Lille have discovered that the seed of the American cotton tree contains much oil, the extraction of which is as simple as that of the oil of *colza*. After several experiments, they have obtained 6 litres of oil from 15 killogrammes of the grain. The evil which we have suffered from the cold winter, could not better be made up to us. It now remains to chemistry to teach us if the oil of cotton contains no injurious qualities, and if this new liquid can take the place, in our manufactures, at least, of the olive oil.

Chemical Sizing.—A French chemist has recently discovered that from the starch of potatoes quite fresh, and washed but once, a fine size, by mixing with chalk, might be made. The stucco plaisterers of this country have benefited by the discovery, and they find that this kind of size is particularly useful for ceilings and for whitewashing, being more durable in tenacity and whiteness, and not putrefying like animal size, or exhaling any unwholesome odour.

Sale of Wives.—The illegality of this kind of contract, though it never could have been a subject of doubt, met with a judicial sanction as early as the 3d Edward I. John Comoy made a grant of his wife Margaret, to William Paynell, in the following words: Noveritis me tradidisse et demisisse spontaneâ meâ voluntate domino Willielmo Pavnell militi Margaretan cumprædicto Willielmo remaneat pro voluntate ipsius Willielmi." On the death of John Comoy, Margaret instituted proceedings for the recovery of her dower, which it was contended she had forfeited by the adulterous cohabitation with Paynell. The court decided—1. That this was a void grant—2. That it did not amount to license, or at least was a void license: so she was barred of dower. See Black. Inst. 435.

Landing of the Fathers.—This picture, by colonel Sargent, is a very honourable effort of the pencil. In the composition it is an improvement of the first painting upon the same subject, although it principally consists of similar grouping; but the figures are brought forward with greater distinctness, and produce a stronger impression. The story is well known. When governor Carver, and the other pilgrims, with their families, landed at Plymouth in the winter of 1620, an Indian, named Samoset, approached, and hailed them with the expression, "Welcome Englishmen." This naturally excited great astonishment—and this is the moment selected by the artist for the delineation of the historical event upon the canvas.

The whole effect is striking. A bleak

wintry day—the ground covered with snow —the children shivering with cold—the calm benignity of Carver—the humble and peaceful attitude of the Indian—the mingled curiosity and surprise of the English males and females—the correct costume of the characters—the rugged faces of some and the venerable air of others—are circumstances which conspire to produce a strong interest in the beholder. We recommend the picture to public encouragement and support.

Just published, "Remarks made on a Short Tour, between Hartford and Quebec, in the Autumn of 1819: By the author of a Journal of Travels in England and Holland." (Professor Silliman.) The above book, price Two Dollars, is for sale by Littell & Henry.

Record.

RUSSIAN MEMORIAL.

Note of the Imperial Russian ministry to the resident Spanish minister.

Petersburgh, April 20. [May 2.]

The note which the chevalier de Zea de Bermudez addressed to the ministry of Russia, under the date of the 19th of April, has been laid before the emperor.

Constantly animated by the desire of seeing the prosperity of the state and the glory of the sovereign maintaining themselves and flourishing together in Spain, his majesty the emperor could not, without profound affliction, learn the events which have occasioned the official note of the chevalier Zea.

Even though these events should be considered only as the deplorable consequences of the errors, which, since the year 1814, seem to have presaged a catastrophe for the peninsula, still nothing can justify the aggressions which deliver up the destinies of the country to a violent crisis. Too often have similar disorders announced days of sorrow for empires.

The future for Spain appears again under a sombrous and disturbed aspect. Well founded disquietude must be awakened throughout all Europe; but the more serious these circumstances are, and the more they are capable of becoming fatal to that general tranquillity, of which the world has scarcely tasted the first fruits, the less does it belong to the powers guaranteeing that universal benefit, to pronounce separately, with precipitation, and according to limited or exclusive views, a definitive judgment on the transactions which have marked the commencement of the month of March in Spain.

Not doubting but that the cabinet at Madrid has addressed similar communications to all the allied courts, his Imperial Majesty readily believes that all Europe is about to speak, in one unanimous voice, to the Spanish government, the language of truth; consequently, the language of a friendship equally frank and well intentioned.

Meanwhile the Russian ministry cannot dispense with adding some considerations on the anterior facts to which the chevalier de Zea de Bermudez has referred in his note. Like him, the Imperial cabinet will invoke the testimony of those facts; and, in citing them, will make known to him the principles which the emperor proposes to follow in his relations with his most Christian Majesty.

In shaking off the foreign yoke which the French revolution had imposed, Spain acquired indelible titles to the esteem and gratitude of all European powers.

Russia paid her the tribute of these sentiments in the treaty of the 8th (20th) of July, 1812.

Since the general pacifications, Russia has, in concert with her allies, given more than one proof of the interest she takes in Spain. The correspondence which has taken place between the different courts of Europe, attests the wish which the emperor has always formed, that the authority of the king might be consolidated, in both hemispheres, through the medium of pure and generous principles, and with the support of vigorous institutions, rendered still more vigorous by the regular mode of their establishment. Institutions which emanate from thrones are conservatory; but if they spring up amidst troubles, they only engender a new chaos. In declaring his conviction on this point, the emperor only speaks according to the lessons of experience. If we look back on the past, great examples present themselves for the meditation of nations and sovereigns.

His majesty persists in his opinion; his wishes are not changed; of that he here gives the most formal assurance.

It now belongs to the government of the peninsula to judge whether institutions, imposed by one of those violent acts (the fatal patrimony of the revolution against which Spain had struggled with so much honour), can realize the benefits which both the worlds expect from the wisdom of his most Catholic Majesty, and the patriotism of his councils.

The path by which Spain shall choose to seek this important object, the measures by which she shall endeavour to destroy the impression produced in Europe by the event of the month of March, must determine the nature of the relations which his Imperial Majesty will preserve with the Spanish government, and the confidence which he would always wish to testify towards it.

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London, August 9.

Copy of a Memorial addressed to all the Ministers of Russia, on the subject of the affairs of Spain.

The chevalier de Zea de Bermudez has presented to the Imperial cabinet the annexed note, relative to the events which have just taken place in the peninsula, and of which we were already informed by the despatches that were forwarded to us by our agents at foreign courts.

M. de Zea, in this document, confines himself to informing us, that the constitution, promulgated by the Cortes in the year 1812, has been accepted by the king, and expresses a desire to know how the emperor has viewed this change of the government. If the distance which separates us from Spain and from the states which are best enabled to weigh maturely the nature of the

disasters with which she is menaced, be considered, it will be readily acknowledged that the position of the Imperial ministry, with regard to the representative of the Spanish nation was difficult and delicate.

The revolution of the peninsula fixes the attention of the two hemispheres: the interests which it is about to decide, are the interests of the universe; and if ever the emperor wished that the opinion of his allies might conduce to regulate his own, it certainly was at the moment when the note of the chevalier de Zea imposed upon his Imperial Majesty the obligation of pronouncing upon an event which involves, perhaps, the future destinies of all civilized nations. This obligation, however, existed; for, in these days, every subject of doubt becomes an instrument of malevolence.

The necessity of applying to M. de Zea, was, therefore, evident; but, in this important conjuncture, it appeared natural that, previously to pronouncing an opinion, the emperor should consider the object which the allied powers proposed to themselves in their relations with Spain; that he should consult the views which they had expressed to that same power, and that he should take as a guide for his own, the principles of European policy. This is what his Imperial Majesty was bound to do; this is what he has done.

Since the year 1812, more than one diplomatic document attests the generous solicitude which the several courts of Europe have constantly manifested in behalf of Spain. They applauded the noble perseverance with which her intrepid people resisted a foreign yoke. They rendered homage to their wisdom, when they rallied round a constitutional throne, the dearest interests of their country—the interests of her independence. Finally, from the period when Providence restored Ferdinand VII. to his people, they never failed to acknowledge that solid institutions could alone secure on its basis the ancient Spanish monarchy.

The allied sovereigns did more: In the course of long conferences, relative to the differences with Rio de la Plata, and to the pacification of the colonies, they let it be sufficiently understood, that these institutions would cease to be a means of peace and happiness, if, instead of being granted by kindness, as a voluntary concession, they should be adopted by weakness, as a last resource of salvation.

Let us investigate, on the other hand, the great transactions which established the European alliance.

What is the object of the engagements that were renewed on the (3d) 15th of November, 1819?

The allied monarchs had just then obliterated the last traces of the revolution in France; but that revolution seemed ready to produce new calamities.

The obligation of the monarchs was, therefore, and their design was, to prevent that, bursting from the same horizon, the same storm should a third time desolate Europe.

Nevertheless, as if the alarms which were then excited by the state of France, and which it still excites, were not sufficient—as if governments and nations entertained but slight doubts with respect to its future condition, it was necessary that the genius of evil should select a new theatre, and that Spain, in her turn, should be offered up as a fearful sacrifice. Revolution has, therefore, changed its ground, but the duties of monarchs cannot change their nature, and the power of the insurrection is neither less formidable nor less dangerous than it would have been in France.

In unison, therefore, with his allies, his majesty cannot but desire to see granted to the peninsula, as to its transmarine provinces, a government which he considers as the only one that can yet justify some hope in this age of calamities. But in virtue of his engagements of the (3d) 15th of November, 1819, his majesty is bound to mark with the most forcible reprobation, the revolutionary measures set in action to give new institutions to Spain. Such is the twofold idea which is found developed in the annexed answer, which the cabinet of Russia has made to the chevalier de Zea, by order of his Imperial Majesty.* The emperor does not doubt that his august allies will approve its contents, and perhaps they have already addressed similar sentiments to the court of Madrid. The same wishes may in fact have inspired the same language, and, convinced, like his majesty, that crime must always yield pernicious fruit, they have doubtless deplored, as he has, the outrage which has recently tarnished the annals of Spain. We repeat it, this outrage is deplorable. It is deplorable for the peninsula; it is deplorable for Europe: and the Spanish nation now owes the example of an expiatory deed to the people of the two hemispheres. Till this be done, the unhappy object of their disquietude can only make them fear the contagion of her calamities. Nevertheless, amidst all these elements of disaster, and when so many motives combine to afflict the real friends of the welfare of nations, may a better future still be looked for? Is there any wise and redeeming measure, whose effect may be to reconcile Spain with herself, as well as with the other powers of Europe.

We dare not affirm it; for experience has taught us to consider almost always as an illusion, the hope of a happy event. But, if we might trust the calculations which personal interest would seem bound to indicate; if it were permitted to presume, that the Cortes would consult the interest of their own preservation, it might be believed, that they would hasten to extirpate, by a solemn measure, all that is culpable in the circumstances which accompany the change of the administration in Spain. The interests of the Cortes are here identified with the interest of Europe. The misled soldiery who protected, may to-morrow assail them; and their first duty towards their monarch, towards their country and themselves, seem to be, to prove that they will never consent to legalize insurrection. These are hopes which would not appear to be without some foundation. The emperor, however, is far from cherishing them; and if he admitted the possibility of a result so useful, he would make it depend upon the unanimity which might manifest itself in the opinion of the principal powers of Europe, as to the act by which the representatives of the Spanish peo-

* This refers to the preceding "note of the imperial Russian ministry to the resident Spanish minister."

ple ought to signalize the opening of their deliberations. This unanimity, always so powerful when it takes the character of an irrevocable deed, will, perhaps, carry conviction to the minds of the most eminent members of his most Catholic Majesty; and the allied courts would seem to have an easy means of impressing upon their language such an imposing uniformity.

Their ministers in France have hitherto treated in their name, with a plenipotentiary of the court of Madrid. Can they not now present to him, in common, observations, the summary of which follows, and which would recall to the Spanish government the conduct, as well as the political principles of the allied monarchs?

"The monarchs," would say the five ministers, "have never ceased to entertain wishes for the prosperity of Spain. They will always entertain them. They have desired, that, in Europe as in America, institutions conformable to the progress of civilization, and to the wants of the age, might preserve to all Spaniards long years of peace and happiness. They desire the same at this moment. They have wished that all these institutions should become a real blessing, by the legal manner in which they should be introduced. They now wish the same.

"This last consideration will convey to the ministers of his Catholic Majesty, with what sentiments of affliction and grief they have learned the events of the 8th of March, and those which preceded it. According to their opinion, the salvation of Spain, as well as the welfare of Europe, will require that this crime should be disavowed, this stain effaced, this bad example exterminated. The honour of such a reparation appears to depend upon the Cortes. Let them deplore, and forcibly reprobate the means employed to establish a new mode of government in their country, and in consolidating an administration wisely constitutional, let them adopt the most rigorous laws against sedition and revolt.

"Then, and only then, the allied cabinets will be able to maintain friendly and amicable relations with Spain."

The observations urged in common, by the representatives of the five courts, would from thenceforth, demonstrate to the Spanish ministry the conduct which the allied governments would observe in case the consequences of the 8th of March should perpetuate, in Spain, trouble and anarchy. If these salutary counsels be listened to, if the cortes offer to their king, in the name of the nation, a pledge of obedience; if they succeed in establishing, upon durable bases, the tranquillity of Spain and the peace of South America, the revolution will have been defeated, at the very moment when it thought to obtain a triumph.

If, on the contrary, alarms perhaps too reasonable, be realized, at least the five courts will have discharged a sacred duty; at least a new occurrence will have developed the principles, indicated the object, and displayed the scope of European alliance.

The emperor awaits the answer of the courts of Vienna, London, Berlin, and Paris, to the communications which his ministers have addressed to them on this subject. He informs them, that the present memorial is the instruction which he has caused to be despatched to all his ministers on the subject of the affairs of Spain.

STATISTICAL REPORT

Of Madison County, Alabama, for the year 1819, *including the Census in the year* 1820.

There were—

59638 acres of land in cultivation in Madison county in the year 1819.
5402 hands employed in cultivation—such as full sharers of a crop
11 acres of cleared land to each hand.
17795 bags of cotton, each 250 lbs net.
4448750 lbs. ginned cotton, for exportation.
980 persons who raised cotton for exportation.
149 cotton gins, 7588 saws, } 149 cotton presses.
About 825 lbs. ginned cotton to one hand.
20 grist mills.
20 distilleries.
6 tan yards.
1 carding and spinning machine, 312 spindles.
7 horse mills.
4 saw mills.
1 brewery.
38 retail stores.

The exports in cotton amount to $444,875, at 10 cts. per lb.
——————— to 889,750, at 20 do.
——————— to 1,112,187 50, at 25 do.

The cleared lands all taken together, would make nine miles and eight-tenths square—equal to ninety-six square miles.

Allowing Madison county to be 22 miles square, it contains 484 square miles; 96 of which, or one-fifth part, is in a state of cultivation.

At present, August 9th, 1820, there are received in the census 19,501 persons—of course there are 3 acres and one-tenth of cleared land to each person.

THE CENSUS.

2,144 white males over 21 years of age.
3,218 white males under 21.
1,696 white females over 21.
3,134 white females under 21.
9,255 slaves.
54 free persons of colour.

19,501 Total.

One sulphur spring in the N. E. part of the county, and I am informed there is one chalybeate spring. JAMES BIBB.

August 19, 1820.

METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

Extract from the "Minutes of the Annual Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church for the year 1820."

Bishops and superintendents—WM. M'KENDREE, ENOCH GEORGE, ROBERT R. ROBERTS.

Principal of the Wesleyan Academy, state of New York—NICHOLAS MORRIS.

Travelling preachers	904
Preachers admitted on trial for this year	120
admitted into full connexion	96
located this year	35

Deacons, (96 of which admitted this year)	152
Elders elected and ordained this year	51
Supernumerary preachers	15
Superannuated preachers	42
Ministers expelled from connexion this year	3
withdrawn	none
died	2

NUMBERS IN SOCIETY.

	White.	*Coloured.*	*Total.*
Ohio Conference	34,286	770	35,056
Missouri do.	5,388	185	5,523
Tennessee do.	21,244	1,920	23,164
Mississippi do.	2,170	461	2,631
S. Carolina do.	21,221	11,748	32,969
Virginia do.	17,626	6,130	23,756
Baltimore* do.	25,754	7,535	33,289
Philadelphia do.	26,572	8,279	34,851
New York do.	22,065	1,391	23,456
N. England do	17,521	218	17,739
Genessee do.	23,831	116	23,947
Total	217,628	38,753	255,881
Total last year			240,924
Increase this year			15,957

The trial of the queen of England commenced on the 17th August. An entrance into the House of Lords has been made for her special accommodation. Her answers to the addresses she receives are more and more like appeals to the people from the anticipated decision of the House of Lords.

London, July 24.

The admiralty are as yet without any information of the discovery ships, under the orders of lieutenant Parry, for a northwest passage to the Pacific, notwithstanding several vessels have arrived. It is strongly suspected lieutenant Parry has effected a passage through James Lancaster's Sound, as no intelligence has been received from him since last year, when he was seen in the Hecla, and the Griper in company, within one day's sail of the entrance of the sound. It is understood his directions were, in the first instance, to examine that extensive inlet, and if he found any impediment to the prosecution of his voyage, to return into Baffin's Bay, and minutely to explore the whole of the coast, particularly Alderman Jones' and sir Thomas Smith's Sounds. Several whalers were considerably to the northward of Lancaster Sound long after the period it might be supposed lieutenant Parry could have reached there, if he had met with any barrier to his proceeding—and from this circumstance it is conjectured he may have been successful in his attempt.

M. Frediani, an Italian traveller, writes from Egypt, that he has succeeded, after 16 days of excessive fatigue across the deserts of Lybia and Marmerique, in reaching the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon, called the great temple, which no person appears to have visited since the time of Alexander the Great, M. Frediani had with him an escort of 2000 men, and had to fight his way to this celebrated monument.

The late arrivals bring no intelligence as to the opinions of the other powers upon the Russian memorial. There is an article in the Courier of a character very extraordinary. It states that although Spain and Naples may be specifically better for their revolutions, yet that Europe may be injured, and that the good of the whole must be consulted. As the Courier is a ministerial paper, it is to be supposed that the English ministry look upon the Spanish revolution with an unfavourable eye.

New York, Sept. 22.

Law Intelligence.—At the late term of the Circuit Court of the United States, held in this city, it was decided by judge Livingston, in the case of the United States vs. Barker, that where a bill of exchange had been remitted by the secretary of the treasury to England, in 1814, for collection, which was protested and sent back, and the protest and bill forwarded from Washington to this city, in the month of December—arriving here on Saturday the tenth—notice to the endorsers given on Monday the 12th, was sufficient to hold them.

The population of the city of Washington is ascertained to be 13,322.

St. Louis, August 23.

Arrived in town on Saturday 19th, colonel Morgan, captain Kearney and captain Pentland, of the United States army. These gentlemen, together with captain Magee, left the Council Bluffs about six weeks ago and went to the Falls of St. Anthony. They describe the country between the bluffs and the falls as eminently beautiful, the prairie predominating, but covered with grass and weeds indicating a rich soil; the face of the country undulating, the streams of water clear and rapid, and occasionally lakes of living water of several miles circumference, embosomed in groves of timber, and edged with grass, and presenting the most delightful appearance in nature. They saw immense herds of buffaloes and elks, sometimes several thousand in a gang. Having missed their way they fell on the Mississippi at Lake Pepin, and then went up the falls. The garrison there was in good health and cheerful, and had fine gardens and a promising crop on hand. Descending the Mississippi, they also saw good crops at *Prairie du Chien*, and among the Indians which inhabit the borders of the river. They confirm the accounts of the fine gardens and crops at the Council Bluffs. [*St. Louis Enq.*

☞ This office will on Monday be removed to its former situation, 74 South Second street.

* Three circuits in the Baltimore conference were not returned; but allowing the numbers to be the same this year as the last, they amount to 3,409; which, added to the above, will make an increase of 19,366.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

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VOL. IV. Philadelphia, October 7, 1820. No. 15.

Miscellany.

THE GREEN BAG.

The disgusting avidity with which the publishers of some of the daily papers are spreading before American *women* the particulars of the Queen's trial, calls for the most pointed reprobation. In England curiosity on the subject may be said to arise from the connexion of the defendant with the government and nation, but here it can proceed only from a depraved and immoral appetite for the filthy details, and ought not to be gratified.

THE CONVICT.

From Ollier's Literary Miscellany, a periodical work, which has lately made its appearance in London.

Robert Wilson was a market gardener. Early in life he married a deserving young woman whom he loved with entire tenderness, and by whom he had several children. No man on earth could be fonder of his little offspring than Wilson; and they, on the other hand, almost worshipped their father, taking delight in nothing so much as in doing what he wished. Wilson was not very wise, nor was he at all learned; but his heart, which as I have said was all of tenderness, told him with unerring instinct that his children would be governed more perfectly and with more wholesome effect under the dominion of love than under that of fear; and his was indeed a happy family, where affection, pleasure, obedience and faith, (faith in each other) went hand in hand. Wilson was well situated for passing his life comfortably and rationally, his garden being just far enough out of London, to render inconvenient his mixing in the squalid profligacies of town (had he been so inclined); and yet he was not so entirely in the country as to harden him into the robust callousness and ignorant vices of village life. He could just hear enough of the "stir of the great Babel," to interest him in it, and to keep his faculties alive and awake to the value of his own quiet, and to the unaffected caresses of his dear wife and children, which always appeared more and more precious after he had been hearing, in his weekly visits to town, some instance of mercenary hypocrisy and false heartedness.

I lodged two years in the house, and have often seen him on a summer's evening sitting in an open part of his garden surrounded by his family, in unconscious enjoyment of the still and rich sunset. I was his guest the last time I saw him, poor fellow, in his placid happiness. We drank tea in the open air, and amused ourselves afterwards, I recollect, with reading the preceding day's newspaper, which Wilson used to hire for the evening. We sat out of doors later than usual owing to the deliciousness of the night, which, instead of deepening into darkness, kept up a mellow golden radiance sweeter than the searching daylight; for before the colours of the sun had entirely faded in the west, the moon came up over the eastern horizon, and the effect was divine. My poor host, however, did not seem so happy as usual. He had been thoughtful the whole evening, and now became pensive; and nothing roused him even into momentary cheer, except the playfulness of his eldest daughter, a merry little girl of about four or five years of age. It was sad to see him, with his dejected face, striving to laugh and romp with the child, who in a short time began to perceive the alteration in her father's manner, and to reflect in her smooth face the uneasiness of his face. But their pastime was of short continuance. It was melancholy pretence. There was nothing hearty in it, except the dance of the child's forehead locks tossed to and fro in the clear moonshine.

I soon found out the cause of this depression. He was beginning to be pinched under an ugly coalition—an increasing family, decreasing business, and times taxed to the uttermost. The gentlefolks living about the great squares did not spend so much money as formerly in decking their flowers and rare exotics, and this was an

important source of Wilson's revenue. He bore up, however, with sad patience, for a long time; till hunger thinned and stretched the round faces of his children, and his wife's endearments, instead of coming with hope and encouragement, seemed like tokens of love growing more and more spiritual and devoted under despair; they were embraces hallowed and made sublime by famine. All this was more than the poor man could bear. The failing voices of his unconscious children were like madness bringing sounds in his ears; and one night, losing in the tumult of his thoughts all distinction between right and wrong, he rushed forth and committed a robbery.

I shall never forget, as long as I live, the hour when he was apprehended by the officers of justice.

A knock was heard at the outer gate, and on Mrs. Wilson's going to open it, two men rushed by her into the house, and seized her pale and trembling husband; who, although he expected and dreaded such an event, was so staggered by it as to lose for a few moments his consciousness of all about him. The first thing he saw on coming to himself, was his wife stretched at his feet in a fearful swoon; and, as he was hurried off, he turned his eye towards her with a heart-broken expression, calling out in a tone half raving and half imploring, "look there, look there!"

It would be vain to attempt a description of the wretched hours passed by him and his wife in the interval which elapsed between this period and the time of his trial. The madness of his utter despair, perhaps, was less intolerable than the sickening agitation produced in her mind by the air-built hopes she dared to entertain in weary succession, and which were only born to be soon stricken back into nothing. This is indeed a ghastly and withering conflict. The poor woman, after enduring it for three weeks, could not be easily recognised by her old acquaintances. There were no traces left of the happy, bustling wife. She moved silently among her children; her face was emaciated and hectic; and her eyes were red with the constant swell of tears. It was a mighty change.

The day of trial at length came on—Wilson was found guilty, and sentence of death was passed on him. The laws in their justice condemned him to be hanged—and the laws in their justice had enforced the taxation, the hard pressure of which had so mainly assisted to drive him into the crime. But the world is inexplicable.

His wife did not survive this news many hours. She died in the night without a struggle. It was of no use to let the condemned man know this. I knew he could never ask to see her again; for their meetings in the prison had already been tormenting beyond endurance.

I visited him in his cell two days before the time appointed for his execution. He was silent for many minutes after I entered, and I did not attempt to rouse him. At length with a voice quivering under an effort to be composed, he said—"Although, Mr. Saville, I do not request (I was going to say I did not *wish*, but God knows how false that would be) to behold my wife again in this bitter, bitter world; because such a dreary meeting would drive her mad, yet I think it would do me good if I could see my child, my eldest girl, my little Betsey. I know not why it is, but I have an idea that her soft prattle, ignorant as she is of my fate, would take something away from the dismal suffering I am to undergo on Wednesday. Therefore bring her, will you, this afternoon; and frame some postponing excuse for my poor wife. These, dear sir, are melancholy troubles, but I know you are very good."

In the afternoon, accordingly, I took the child, who asked me several times on the road why her father did not come. As we walked along the gloomy passages to his cell, she clung close to me, and did not say a word. It was very different, poor thing, to the open and gay garden about which she was used to run.

The door of her father's miserable dungeon was soon opened, and the child rushed into his arms. "I do not like you to live in this dark place, father," she cried; "come home with me and Mr. Saville, and see mother who is in bed."

"I cannot come just now, my child," he answered; "you must stay a little with me, and throw your arms round my neck and lean your face on mine."

The child did as she was bidden, and the poor man, straining her to him, sobbed bitterly and convulsively. After a few minutes, he looked with yearning eyes in her face, saying, "Come, my dear, sing your poor father that pretty song which you know you used to sing to him when he was tired on an evening. I am not well now. Look at me, my child, and sing."

How sad it was to hear the child's voice warbling in that dolorous place! I could scarcely bear it; but it seemed to have a contrary effect on the father. His eyes were lighted up, and a smile appeared on his countenance. The song was of love,

and woody retirement, and domestic repose, and the baffled frowns of fortune. While the child was singing, I left the cell to make some arrangements with the gaoler, who was walking close to the door. I had not, however, been thus engaged for five minutes, before I heard something fall heavily, accompanied by a violent scream, and rushing into the cell, I saw the unhappy convict lying on the floor, and his little girl clinging round his neck. The gaoler and I lifted him up, and alarmed at the hue of his face, called in the medical attendant of the prison, who soon told us the poor man was dead.

The account given by the child was—that after she had done singing her father started, then looked sharply in her face, and with a strange and short laugh, fell from his chair. I suppose she had sung him into a temporary forgetfulness of his situation; that she conjured into his mind with her innocent voice, a blessed dream of past days and enjoyments, and that the spell ceasing when her melody ceased, the truth of things had beat upon his heart with too stunning a contrast, and it had burst.

M. L. C.

FROM THE LITERARY JOURNAL.

The narrator ceased, and received the thanks of his auditors: "Truly," said one of them, "I was surprised at the conclusion of your story, as after the most approved method, when a heroine is deserted by her lover, she falls into a kind of painless consumption, which heightens, instead of diminishing her beauty. And just as the repentant swain appears, she dies in full dress, uttering a sentimental speech with appropriate interruptions." "Well," returned the other, "it is your task to entertain us. We will see if your heroine is more refined." "I will give you a story," said the critic, "that shall not have the word Love in it." "A sensible story," said the old bachelor. A young lady put up her lip in scorn, and the old gentleman began the loveless tale.

THE AUBURN RINGLET.

It was a calm summer afternoon, that, taking my fishing implements, and whistling for my dog, who always made one of my pleasure parties, I strolled to the banks of the river. I resided just where the Highlands commence, and it was one of my greatest pleasures to ramble over the piles of rocks that form the bold shore of the Hudson. One that reared its white head above the water, and was partly shaded by a large ash tree, whose long branches kissed the waves, was my favourite seat. Having reached this spot, I laid down my rod, and forgot my errand in admiring the beauty of the scenery. I had admired it a thousand times before, but it had never inspired me with such peculiar feelings. "There was not a breath to curl the blue wave," which reflected the lofty hills in all their majesty. No sound of humanity broke the silence of nature; not a vessel disturbed the waters; and a little rill that dashed noisily down the rocks, fell into the river with a gentle murmur that soothed the ear. I watched the sun sink behind the hills, and hailed the moon as she rose smiling to compensate for his absence. Her mellow light fell softly upon every object, making the water appear as one stainless mirror, and revealing as it glanced upon the opposite mountains some dark cave or gloomy recess where I almost fancied I beheld the red man couching. I was startled from a train of wild imagination by the sound of footsteps on the shore. They seemed afar off, but the night was so still that a pebble falling in the water sounded some distance. My dog erected his ears, and roused him from his slumber. I bid him lie down, and he crouched obedient at my feet. The shore at that period was often visited by Rafters, rough men with whom it was most prudent to have little communication. Supposing that a party of these fellows were approaching, I resumed my segar. As they advanced, however, and turned the angle of a rock which had concealed them from my view, I perceived that they were strangers, though not of the description I imagined. They walked silently on, with as much rapidity as the uneven path would permit, while their heavy steps broke rudely on the harmony of the night.

I placed my hand on Sancho's head, lest he should move, and, concealed by the friendly tree, watched the conduct of the intruders. As they passed my hiding place, the moon shining full in the face of the one nearest me, revealed a set of handsome but agitated features. He was unnaturally pale; and, whether from exercise or emotion I knew not, large drops of perspiration rolled from his brow, for he had taken off his hat, and frequently shook from his face the dark hair which curled in profusion round his head. His companion I could not obtain a view of. As they passed, my dog could not restrain a faint growl; the young man started, "We are watched," he said. "Pshaw!" returned the other peevishly, and they went on. I suffered them to walk some

distance, then cautiously followed them; the noise of their own steps preventing them from hearing mine. Sancho, as if aware that he must be silent, came slowly behind me.

I have often thought how awkward I should have felt had they turned suddenly upon me, and demanded my business. They were, however, too hurried, and too intent on their errand, to look either to the right or to the left, but continued to walk for half an hour, the scene each moment becoming more wild, and the mountains more gloomy. At length they stopped. I stepped behind a large rock, and heard them draw a boat to the water, saw them get in, push silently off, and with long, but soft strokes proceed up the river.

I was not a little provoked at my folly in walking a mile over rough stones, merely to see two men find their skiff, and go home in it. It took me an hour to return to the spot whence I had started, and almost as long to recover my fishing tackle, which, in my haste to quit the rock, I had kicked over, and now found entangled in the weeds which grew around the stones. So much for curiosity, said I, as I pricked my fingers till they bled in disentangling the hooks. At last my arrangements were completed, and I proceeded homeward. I looked at my watch, and was surprised to find that my adventure had detained me till near midnight. I had turned from the river, and was climbing a steep ascent that led to my farm, when a low and smothered cry of "help" startled me. It was repeated, and seemed to proceed from the river. I ran to the banks, but saw or heard nothing. After waiting some moments, all being quiet, I turned away in the hope that it was some frolic of the Rafters. I had scarcely reached my house when louder cries of "help, murder," sounded along the silent shores. I called my servants, who got out the boat, and we set off in pursuit of the murderers. We thought that we heard the dashing of oars in the water below us; we followed the sound; we seemed to come near them, as we heard a sound as of struggling, but there was no voice. We followed rapidly: all was still for many moments, when the loud shriek of a man, a man in mortal agony, thrilled our hearts. It ceased, and was never repeated. The rocks faintly echoed the dreadful cry, and the scenery again slept in tranquillity. I thought that I distinguished the moanings of a woman; but it might have been but the sighing of the night breeze. We continued the pursuit till fatigue obliged us to return, nor could we find a clue to guide us through the mystery. All our inquiries were unsatisfactory; no person had been seen—no person was missing—it was all dark and incomprehensible. The ensuing day, accompanied by my brother, I retraced my evening walk; we saw the place where the boat had been concealed, and determined to search farther up the river. We did so, and had proceeded nearly two miles when we observed the trace of a violent struggle on the beach. The print of men's feet was impressed deep in the sand; and there was an appearance, for some yards, as if something heavy had been dragged along. As we were examining the place, some object glistening in the sun caught my eye; I picked it up, and clearing it from the sand, it proved to be a mourning ring. It was simply a band of black velvet, fastened by a diamond of some value. It seemed to have dropped off in consequence of some struggle, for the velvet was torn and twisted. Here was evidence of foul play; but who were the authors of it, or their victim, seemed alike concealed forever. As I was making these reflections, I perceived on a bush near me, what appeared to be a remnant of a lady's lace veil; and further on, there lay upon the white blossoms of a thorn a long *Auburn Ringlet*. I raised it from the thorns that caught and retained it. It curled in soft graceful rings, but its fairness was defaced, for it was stained with blood.

I carefully preserved these relics, hoping that they might one day lead to a discovery of the crime. But time passed on. It was ten years after this incident, I had become a husband, a father, and an old fashioned man, when going to New York, there came on board the same vessel the young man whose steps I had watched on the river shore. The instant I beheld, I recognised that pale countenance, and those clustering locks. He was very thin, and it was evident that it was not the hand of time so much as of affliction, which had robbed him of his bloom. I sought his acquaintance, which he readily granted me, and before we arrived at the city, we were (to all appearance) excellent friends; indeed, could I have banished my dark suspicions from my mind, it would have been impossible to have resisted the grace of his manner, or the fascination of his language. He possessed a mild dignity which created respect, and a gentle benevolence which inspired affection. When he thought himself unobserved, his face grew dark, and it expressed the greatest melancholy. But if any one approached, he roused himself, and shook it off in-

stantly. I saw much of him at New York, and when I left the city I invited him to visit me. "I reside," I said, "on the east bank of the Hudson, at the entrance of the Highlands." As I spoke I fixed my eyes on his face; but read nothing there. He consented to be my guest; and as I parted from him, I said to myself—after all, I only saw by moonlight.

At the appointed time Henry Cleighton arrived. He soon won the hearts of my household—he became the favourite playmate of the children—the kind friend of my wife, and to myself he was an instructive and pleasing companion. He had been my guest more than a week ere I could summon resolution to execute my long planned scheme. I feared to unmask him, if the candour, gentleness and benevolence he daily exhibited, were indeed assumed. Accident however led me on.

One fine day, Cleighton proposed a walk. I led him to the river shore, and visited my old fishing seat. I guided him to the place where the boat had been moored. He conversed calmly. I went on till we came to the fatal spot. It was not adapted to scenes of blood: a stream had worn its silent way through the rock; its sides were thickly shaded by wild laurel, whose beautiful blossoms were now peeping from their dark green leaves. As the eye followed the windings of the clear stream, it seemed to lead to the sequestered retreat of some fairy, or mountain spirit. A large clump of thorn bushes grew aside of the rill, and it was there I had found the evidences of guilt. To that spot I now led Henry Cleighton; he appeared a little restless; complained of weariness, and sat down on one of the large stones. After a long pause, I said, "would I never had seen this accursed place." Cleighton looked surprised. "It was on this shore," I continued, "that I once heard a fellow creature cry for aid, and could not afford it to him." "What speak you of," asked Cleighton calmly. I related to him the adventure. He heard me with an unchanging countenance, until I mentioned the ring and hair; then methought for a moment his brow blanched. "Did you see the man's face?" he inquired; "Yes," I answered, "as distinctly as I now see yours." "Would you know him were you to see him again?" "*I knew him the moment I saw him*," I returned, fixing my eyes on his. He arose, and proudly erecting his tall person, said, with cool dignity, "and you suspect me?" My silence answered him. "It is even so," he continued: "Listen to me, not as one who pleads for himself, but as an unbiassed stranger. You meet a man who resembles a face which ten years before you saw, for an instant, by the uncertain light of the moon; and this man you pronounce a murderer." "Nay, Cleighton," I said, "I have locked my suspicions in my own breast. If I have wronged you, pardon me; I can only say the resemblance struck me immediately, while your melancholy added to my suspicion." "Must a man commit murder to be melancholy?" said he bitterly. "Think you, if my hands were bloody I would visit the spot where I had stained them. But enough—I pardon your injustice—Farewell," and, with hasty strides, he left me. I returned, melancholy and perplexed. His agitation might have been produced by conscious innocence or conscious guilt; which, I could not determine.

In the evening of that day I was shocked to behold the object of my thoughts carried in by my servants, pale and senseless. They had found him lying at the bottom of a high rock, from which he had apparently fallen. He was mangled by the sharp stones on which he had struck, and his face was already distorted with the agonies of approaching dissolution. Every remedy and attention was bestowed upon him. He opened his eyes, and beholding me, started; then raising himself up with more strength than we thought he possessed, he wildly demanded the tress of hair. It was given him. He pressed it to his lips, and a tear found its way to his distended eyes; but when he saw the blood that stained it, madness dried the kindly moisture. "It is his blood," he cried, "his heart's best blood," and he laughed hellishly. "Ingrate," he continued, in a more subdued tone, "on that cold bleeding bosom did she choose to pillow her dying head, when mine was bursting to receive her. But they are dead. No one saw it, but the blue sky and those who did it; none live to tell it." In this manner he continued to rave till the words died on his lips, and he expired holding the ringlet to his heart.

We followed him silently to his lonely grave. The spot was long avoided by the peasants, and many a ghost story has taken its rise from this occurrence; but it has long since faded from their minds, and is only remembered by some old man like myself, who loves to tell long stories.

"After all," said the young lady, who with difficulty had waited the conclusion, "after all, love was the very basis of the story: it is plain that Cleighton loved

hopelessly, and was rendered desperate." "Nothing of which is mentioned in my story; but I perceive the slightest hint will cause the youthful imagination to rove," answered the old gentleman, rather nettled.

There was among our group a lady who from her appearance had arrived at the fatal age of old maidism.

Indeed, her close gown and plain muslin cap proclaimed she was an old maid; yet many young ones would have done wisely to have copied her manners. As I looked at her dark intelligent eyes, and placid open brow, I wished it was her turn to speak.

Next her sat an old bachelor, but no ray of cheerfulness illumined his face. He was still handsome, though grief seemed to have united with time in shading his features. The storms of heaven had passed over him, and their lightnings scathed him as they passed. When reminded that we were waiting his pleasure, he said with a mournful smile, you have often rallied me on my unsocial life; prepare to hear the reasons which keep me an

OLD BACHELOR.

I need not inform you that I am an Englishman. I was born in a pleasant village fifty miles distant from London, in which my father was the most important man excepting the lord of the manor, who was his intimate friend; though never were two men so dissimilar.

Mr. Welworth was proud of his birth, ostentatious of his wealth, and of a stern, unforgiving temper; yet he possessed strong feelings; but he valued himself upon his firmness, which, however, too often rose to obstinacy. Two daughters adorned his home. The eldest, Clara, was surpassingly beautiful; but her mind and temper too much resembled her father's. The youngest, my Maria, was totally different; her beauty, like her character, was of a softer cast. Her snowy skin, fair hair, and eyes that spoke of heaven, were to me more attractive than the brilliant charms of Clara. At the period from which I date this story, and the sorrows of my life, I had attained my twentieth year, and Maria was scarce sixteen. In compliance with my urgent request, my father had procured me a commission in the —— regiment. Never shall I forget the vain, but rapturous feeling I experienced, when I first surveyed myself in regimentals, and how I hastened to exhibit them before Mr. Welworth's mansion; or the fond admiration with which Maria in our stolen evening walk, gazed on her young soldier. These secret interviews were often repeated, for as yet, we dared not tell our love. I will pass over this period. Alas! we "loved not wisely, but too well." When I had sacrificed Maria's peace and my own honour to the selfishness of passion, I determined to repair to her father, and implore his consent to our union, never permitting myself to doubt the readiness with which it would be given. I arrived too late: Mr. Welworth had departed for the north on urgent business, and I was obliged to defer my suit till his return. While I was impatiently counting the hours, military business called me to London. I had been in the metropolis but a few days, when my regiment was suddenly ordered abroad; no delay was allowed; I had not even permission to see Maria, or take a personal farewell of my parents. I could only write to her, conjuring her to be faithful to her engagements, promising to return as speedily as my honour would permit; and using every argument to console her, I bade her adieu. To my parents I also wrote, informing them of my attachment to Maria, and entreating them to watch over her as their child. These duties performed, I departed for the port whence we were to embark. I had ample time for reflection, as our voyage, though safe, was long, and my thoughts were constantly recurring to my native village—to Maria, sad and lonely—or looking gloomily forward to the long, perhaps eternal separation we were doomed to. But brighter thoughts would sometimes cheer me. Reclining on the deck while a brilliant moon lighted up the calm sea, I often fell into waking dreams, and imagined myself returning rich and honourable to Maria and happiness. Half of my vision was realized. After an absence of five years, I succeeded to the estate of a distant relative, and finding an opportunity of retiring from the service with credit, I returned to England with an honourable name, but a heart torn with a thousand apprehensions.

Among the first letters I had received from my father, he mentioned Mr. Welworth's disapprobation of my union with his daughter, and that Maria, with a firmness that astonished her friends, had expressed her fixed determination never to become the wife of any other man. In consequence of this decision, Maria was forbidden to write or receive letters from me. This unpleasant intelligence only incited

me to greater exertions. I depended on Maria's faithfulness, and endeavoured to win that promotion which would render me acceptable in her father's eyes.

From this time my father dwelt less in his letters on the subject dearer to me than all others, till at last he ceased to mention Maria's name. I wrote earnestly requesting to hear of her welfare. His answer was couched in the tenderest language, but he only said of her of whom I longed to hear, "Maria is well." Soon after the receipt of this letter, my father died, but not even a parent's death would have at that period excused my abandoning my post. In harassing uncertainty I dragged through the tedious years.

At length I seemed to be repaid for all my sufferings; fortune and fame both smiled upon me, and I endeavoured, by bright anticipations, to stifle the fears that rose in my mind. We landed. The day was closing; but without heeding the hour, I hired a chaise, and rapidly travelled to my native place. Various emotions filled my breast as I approached it. Love had not so entirely possessed my heart as to render it insensible to the claims of filial affection; and as I thought of my widowed mother, I felt I was a son. The dawn of the second morning of my journey broke over the well-known hills I had so often climbed in my boyhood. At the entrance of the village, I dismissed the chaise, and walking hastily through the place, was soon in the arms of my joyful and astonished parent. When the first incoherent expressions of surprise and pleasure were uttered, and we became more composed, I snatched up my hat, and pronouncing Maria's name, was departing. My mother would have detained me, but I told her gaily it was Maria's turn, and ere she could reply, I had reached the door of Mr. Welworth's mansion. Five years of danger and fatigue had so altered my appearance, that the gray headed servant who opened the door, did not recognise in the sunburnt man before him the rosy boy who had a hundred times rode upon his back. Supposing me a visiter on business, for I was too agitated to speak, he ushered me in the study, where Mr. Welworth was seated at his lonely breakfast. Mr. Welworth started up as I approached. Hate quickened his memory: he knew me instantly. Too anxious to heed his frown and repulsive gesture, I eagerly inquired for Maria, and besought him to grant me an interview with her. At the mention of that name, the flush that anger had summoned to his brow forsook it. He turned to me with an expression of face I shall never forget, and said in a low tone of bitter anguish, "seek her in the brothel, amidst the infamy to which you led her. Would you know more? She, who was once my daughter, is now a willing, nay, a shameless wanton." I heard no farther. When I recovered my senses, I found myself in my own house. Desiring the attendants to withdraw, I begged my mother to unravel this terrible mystery. It seemed, from her account, that Maria, became after my departure each day more dejected. In vain did my mother bestow on her the tenderest caresses; they only called forth the most violent grief. Alas! a dreadful secret preyed on the unhappy girl; when she found it impossible to conceal it, she flew to my mother. But by a fatality that seemed to pursue us, my mother had left home to visit some distant friends. Maria hastened home, and unfolded to her indignant and astonished sister, her sorrow and her shame. But who can describe the rage of her haughty father? With the most bitter curses he drove her from the house, and closed his heart and his door for ever upon her. Where the wretched wanderer found an asylum, my mother could not tell. Soon she again sought her father's mercy. Her sister saw her not; and Mr. Welworth, with menaces and reproaches, spurned his weeping child. Here my mother paused; but I insisted vehemently on hearing all. It was horrible to hear—it would be maddening to repeat. It was enough. She had been seen the light companion of a man of rank. "Where is her child," I inquired, interrupting the sad detail. My mother knew not. "Where is she?" My mother knew not. "But I will know," I said; "there is no wretchedness or infamy I will not descend to, to rescue her; oh! but for me she would now be shining in all the light of purity. Who can tell what extremity of despair drove her to vices; perhaps even now she looks with weeping eyes to the innocence she has lost. From this moment I will devote my life, my fortune, to the redemption of this fallen one. It is but just.—Was I not her destroyer?"

My mother wept over me, but she did not oppose me.

I went to London, and commenced my miserable search; I cannot detail the scenes I witnessed. Often have I turned shuddering from haunts of horror and guilt, and thought, "did her pure soul inhabit there." After many months of fruitless search, I

traced the fugitive. I was told she had sought refuge in the Magdalen Asylum.

Blessed tidings! She had not waited to be snatched from pollution, but had voluntarily directed her steps to the abode of virtue. I determined to see her, to hold her once more to my heart, and justify myself to her. To solemnly bestow on her my name and fortune, (poor restitution,) then bidding her farewell, to seek in other countries relief for my wounded heart.

With these resolutions, I hastened to the Magdalen house. The porter seemed astonished at my appearance and inquiries, and said he was not allowed to hold conversation with strangers. After much urging, he consented to go to the room, where a committee of the trustees were sitting. He returned immediately with an answer from the trustees, that it was out of rule to admit male visiters. Out of rule! How impertinent to my wrung heart did this cold formality appear. My evident distress touched the porter; he consented to bear a second message. I followed, and entered the apartment with him. Several elderly gentlemen were sitting round a table transacting business. They would have denied me entrance, but I rushed forward, and impetuously demanded to see Maria Welworth. I avowed myself her betrayer, and related in a hurried manner our sad history. "I entreat you," I continued, "to permit me to see her; disgraced, polluted, as she is, she is still dearer to me than life." My hearers were moved. They sent for one of the matrons, and strove to sooth my agitated feelings. The matron obeyed the summons. One of the trustees inquired, if Maria Welworth was well enough to see a friend? "Bless you, sir," said the woman, "she died only an hour ago; she is scarce cold yet." My senses failed me for a few moments; they afterwards told me that I uttered a piercing shriek that caused them to tremble. With returning life came a faint spark of hope. There might be some mistake; I asked to see the corpse. They led me to the chamber of death; I bent over the dead, and tried to raise the linen that concealed the face, but I *dared not*. The matron uncovered it, and revealed the features and form of her, who, six years before, I had seen in all the bloom of youth and beauty. But nothing before me recalled the pure blushing Maria I had loved. There was a faint trace of her innocent smile round her mouth, but all the rest was stamped with guilt and misery, disease and death. C.

THE PROMPTER—NO. IX.

It will do for the present.

This common saying does as much mischief in society, as *rum* or a *pestilence*. If I hear a man, whether a farmer, a mechanic, or any other person, often repeat that saying, and appear to act from the opinion, that *it will do for the present*, I rely on it he is a sloven, a drone, or something worse. I never knew such a man thrive.

A young man setting out in life, is in haste to be married. He wants a house to live in, but is not fully able to build one. Yet his pride requires a large showy house. At last, between poverty and pride, he determines to build a large house, but not to finish it till he is *more able*. He sets up a large two story house, with four rooms in a story—he covers it and paints it: this is a showy house—his pride exults to see passengers stare at his elegant house: but though *pride* governs the *outside*, *poverty* reigns *within*—he can finish but two rooms, half finish one or two more—and lay a loose floor above, to spread his corn upon: this elegant mansion house then is a granary—a corn house: the man and a litter of children below—and rats and mice above: but the man says, *it will do for the present*. True, but the man has but twenty or thirty acres of land, or an indifferent trade—his family grows faster than his income—he is not able to finish his house—the covering soon decays and admits water—the house falls to pieces—the man is forced *poor* into the wilderness, or he and his children loiter about, dependent on the neighbours for subsistence by day labour.

I know one of these *do-for-the-present-farmers*, who never effectually repairs his fences; but when a breach is made, he fills it with a bush that a sheep may remove: if a rail is broke, and another is not at hand, he takes the next billet of wood, inserts one end into the post, and ties up the other with elm or hickory bark—he says, *this will do for the present*. His cattle learn to be unruly—to remedy the evil, fetters, shackles, clogs, yokes, and what he calls *pokes*, are invented—and his cattle and horses are doomed to hobble about their pasture with a hundred weight of wood or iron machines upon their feet and necks. The man himself, in two years, spends time enough in patching up his fences and making fetters, to make a good effectual fence round his whole farm, which would want very little repair in twenty years.

In family affairs, these *do-for-the-present-*

folks double their necessary labour. They labour hard to put things *out of order*, and then it requires nearly the same work to put them into order again. A man uses an axe, a hoe, a spade, and throws it down where he uses it; instead of putting it in its proper place, under cover. Exposed to the weather, tools do not last more than half so long, as when kept housed; but this is not all: a sloven leaves the tool where he last used it—or throws it down any where at random: in a few days he wants it again—he has forgot where he left it—he goes to look for it—he spends perhaps half an hour in search of it, or walks a distance to get it: this time is lost, for it breaks in upon some other business—the loss of this small portion of time appears trifling; but slovens and sluts incur such losses every day; and the loss of these little scraps of time determine a man's fortune. Let the Prompter make a little calculation: a farmer, whose family expends one hundred pounds a year, if he can clear ten pounds a year is a thriving man. In order to get his one hundred and ten pounds, suppose he labours ten hours a day: in this case, if he loses an *hour* every day, in repairing the carelessness of the day before (and every sloven and slut loses more time than this, every day, for want of care and order) he loses a *tenth* part of his time—a *tenth* part of his income—this is *eleven pounds*. Such a man cannot thrive—he must grow poorer, for want of *care*, of *order*, of *method*.

So it is with a woman. A neat woman who does business thoroughly, keeps things *in order*, with about *half the labour* that a slut employs who keeps things for ever *out of order*. If a pail or kettle is used, it is directly made clean, fit for other uses, and put in its place. When it is wanted, it is ready. But a slut uses an article and leaves it *any where*, dirty, unfit for use another time: by and by it is wanted, and cannot be found—"Moll, where did you leave the kettle?" "I han't had the kettle, Nab had it last"—"Nab, did you have the kettle?" "Yes, but it is dirty." So the kettle is found, but it is a half hour's work to fit it for the purpose required; in the mean time, the necessary business must lie by. Yet this woman says, when she does any thing, *it will do for the present*.

I have only to add, that I went to church, on a late cold Sunday, when a neighbouring clergyman officiated. He had spoken to his *fifteenthly*, when the clock struck *one*. Every man was shivering with the cold and shuffling his feet—the parson took the hint, and broke off with "*this will do for the present*."

From the Philosophical Magazine and Journal.

Emerald Mines.

M. Caillaud's account of his discoveries in Egypt will shortly be published in Paris. Some time ago he discovered near Mount Zabarah, the famous emerald mines which were previously known only by the writings of the ancient authors, and the stories of the Arabs. They had been almost forgotten for a long lapse of time, and were totally unproductive to the government of the country. They were discovered by M. Caillaud nearly in the same state in which they had been left by the engineers of the Ptolemies. He penetrated into a vast number of excavations and subterraneous canals, some of which are so deep that 400 men may work in them at once. In the mines were found cords, levers, tools of various kinds, vases, and lamps; and the arrangement of the works afforded every facility for studying the ancient process of mining. M. Caillaud himself set about working the mines, and he has presented six pounds of emeralds to Mahommed Ali Pashaw. In the vicinity of the mines, the ruins of a little town have been discovered, which in ancient times was probably inhabited by the miners: among the ruins are the remains of several Græco-Egyptian temples with inscriptions. M. Caillaud has twice visited Zabarah; during his second journey he was accompanied by a considerable number of armed men, miners and workmen, whom the Pashaw had placed under his directions. On his way to the emerald mines, the French traveller crossed one of the ancient routes for the trade of India, by the way of Egypt. He observed stations, enclosures for the union and protection of caravans, cisterns, &c. M. Caillaud learnt from the Arabs of the tribes of Ababdeh and Bycharyn, that this road led to the ruins of a very extensive town, on the banks of the Red Sea, situated about the 24th degree of latitude, near the mountain of Elbé. This town has since been visited by MM. Belzoni and Bitche, and will probably be better described by them than by M. Caillaud. On the banks of the Red Sea, the traveller discovered a mountain of sulphur, on which some diggings had been made; in the neighbourhood of this mountain, traces of volcanic eruptions were observable, and a quantity of puzzolane and other igneous substances

were found. M. Caillaud carefully observed the mountains which separate the Nile from the Arabian Gulf, as well as the calcareous tracts of ground, and chains of mountains between the Nile and the Oasis, which all belong to the primitive soil. Here he examined several ancient Egyptian structures, and others of more modern date; he discovered several very ancient vaults, thermal springs, &c. Among the Greek and Latin inscriptions which he met with in his excursions, was one containing 70 lines, and about 9000 letters; it is more copious by at least one-fifth than the Greek inscription on the Rosetta stone. By dint of vast patience and labour, M. Caillaud succeeded in copying this inscription in three days. Though it is of recent date compared with the Rosetta monument, since it belongs to the age of the emperor Galba, it presents some new and curious facts relative to the internal administration of Egypt. M. Caillaud returned last year to Paris, bringing along with him a vast number of drawings, notes, and antiques, found principally in the hypogea of Thebes, &c. These treasures have been purchased by the French government. The antiques are deposited in the cabinet of medals and antiques of the king's library, and the drawings will be engraved and published with descriptions in two vols. folio. M. Caillaud has again set out for Egypt. In November last he was at Bony-Souey, 25 leagues from Cairo. He was about to depart for the Fayoum, and to proceed towards the Oasis of Sivah. He must ere this have made many new and interesting observations. At a quarter of a league from one of the pyramids of Sakkarah, he descended into a hypogeum sacred to the deity Apis, where he found, in a kind of labyrinth, several bulls embalmed and preserved like mummies.

It should be remarked, that M. Belzoni had performed the same journey not long before; and perhaps had discovered this same sepulchre of Apis, in company with Mr. Beechey (son of Sir William, the painter), whose name the French writers most unpardonably mangle, by writing it *Bitche!*

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Discovery of Cicero's Treatise De Republica.

The following letter, dated December 23, 1819, from the principal librarian of the Vatican to the Pope, giving an account of the discovery of Cicero's treatise *de Republica*, has excited great expectation; and though the writer may be too sanguine as to the possibility of deciphering the whole, there can be little doubt that what is actually gained will be a valuable addition to classical literature.

(COPY.)

"Most blessed Father, first kissing your sacred foot, I have the honour and satisfaction to inform your beatitude, that my studies in the Vatican library, in which I preside through your sovereign clemency, have been encouraged by signal success.—In two rewritten codices of the Vatican, I have lately found some lost works of the first Latin classics. In the first of these MSS. I have discovered the lost books *De Republica* of Cicero, written in excellent letters of the best time, in three hundred pages, each in two columns, and all fortunately legible. The titles of the above noble subject, and of the books, appear in the margin; and the name of Cicero, as author of the work, is distinctly legible. A composition of the middle ages having been again written upon this MS. the original pages have been misplaced, and even mutilated; notwithstanding this, a great part remains. The moral and political philosopher, the legislator, the historian, the antiquary, and the lover of pure latinity, will naturally expect, with impatience, the publication of this important work of Cicero, so long lamented as lost. I shall lose no time in preparing it for press, and in submitting it to your holiness' inspection. The other rewritten codex presents various and almost equally precious works. It is singular that this MS. contains some of the same works which I discovered and published at Milan, and I have here found what there was wanting. I perceived this at first sight, not only from comparing the subject, but also from the handwriting, which is precisely the same as that of the Milan MS.

"The contents are—1. The correspondence between Fronto and Marcus Aurelius, before and after he was emperor. This is an instructive, affectionate, and very interesting collection; the first and second books, containing epistles to M. Aurelius, were published from the Milan MS.; that now found in the Vatican contains the third, and fourth, and fifth books, as well as the supplement to the second, and some other works by Fronto, in Latin and Greek.—2. The fine commentary of the inedited scholiast on Cicero, begun to be published by me at Milan, and now to be increased by five other orations, with the supplements to those already printed

at Milan.—3. A fragment of an oration by Q. Aurelius Symmachus, with the supplement of two by the same author, already published by me.—4. The supplements to the Homily, or Gothico-Ulphilan Commentary, a portion of which was also found at Milan, together with an essay of Ulphilas. These valuable works, mixed into two volumes, which were taken for writing parchment in the middle ages, were sent partly to Rome and partly to Milan, from the convent of St. Columbanus at Bobbio. They will now be again united in a Roman edition of them, which I shall lose no time in publishing. I will not now request your attention, most blessed father, to some other fragments of those same codices, though they are worthy of publication. May I be permitted to express my joy, &c.

(Signed) "Angelo Mai,
"*First Librarian to the Vatican.*"

Cicero composed his Republic (to which the above letter refers,) in imitation of Plato. It is alluded to and quoted by St. Augustin, Lactantius, and others. The fragments that have come down to us were published by M. Bernardi, in two volumes, 12mo. 1807, with a dissertation on the progress of the arts and luxury of the Romans.

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The Interior of Africa.

The marquis d'Etourville, who is at present in Africa on matters of private business, intends, on his return to France, to publish some interesting notices relative to natural history, a science wherein he has made numberless discoveries, and such as well deserve the attention of the learned. He has recently forwarded certain memoranda which he made during his long captivity, of which the following is a very brief analysis.

M. d'Etourville emigrated from France to Spain in 1790; he there commenced a course of medical studies, and afterwards resided some time in Lisbon, taking lessons in that science. From Lisbon he repaired to the isle of St. Thomas, situated under the equator, at the extremity of the Gulf of Guinea. He remained some years in this island, whence occasionally he made excursions into the western regions of Africa. In one of these, he fortunately cured some dangerous wound under which the Manicongo, a prince of the country, was suffering. Having thereby gained the favour of the prince, he attended him in an expedition or journey more than four hundred leagues in the interior of the continent.

In the course of this peregrination, M. d'Etourville traced on a map the western lines of the lake Aqualinda, respecting which, till then, no certain information had been obtained. He likewise ascertained with precision the geographical route of the Zaire, with its sources, and the lakes it forms in its progress.

In a journey which he undertook in 1800, M. d'Etourville was taken prisoner by a wandering tribe of Gijas, who are cannibals. Whatever common fame has reported of their ferocity, is no exaggeration. They make war to devour their prisoners; and it is certain, as Dopper relates, that human flesh is sold in their markets. The blood which they draw from the veins of their living victims, is to them a delicious beverage. M. d'Etourville remained fifteen months among these barbarians. All his companions were devoured; and he must have shared the same fate, had he not been so fortunate as to cure a broken arm of the favourite mistress of the chief of the horde.

Compelled to be in the train of this troop of Gijas, he ranged through an extent of continent from the country of the Auriscans to Hulla, when he escaped from their hands. He then proceeded to a province south of the western mountains of the moon, at a small distance from what he considers as the real sources of the Nile. Hereabout he fixes the empire of Droglodo, unknown at present, but far more civilized than the circumjacent regions. The politics of the government, according to M. d'Etourville, bear a strong resemblance to the Chinese, and the civilization of the Droglodians must be traced to a very remote source. The merchants of Droglodo go, once a year, authorized by their government, to meet the Abyssinian merchants in a narrow passage of the mountain Narcar. They convey thither gold dust, musk, pearls, precious stones, ivory, gums, and Ethiopian slaves, in exchange for which they receive shawls, Indian stuffs, Turkey carpets, and salt.

In this country M. d'Etourville remained about ten years; and, though in a state of slavery, he had many opportunities of noticing the manners of the people and their antiquities. His different observations have led him to conclude that the Abyssinians, the Nubians, and the ancient Egyptians, who built the pyramids, were all originally from *Droglodo*, which he con-

ceives to have been the country inhabited in ancient times by the *Troglodytes.*

M. d'Etourville returned to France about the time of the re-establishment of the Bourbons; but set out again, in 1814, to realize and secure some goods and property in Africa, whence he is expected shortly to return, and when the full account of his travels may be expected in the Journal of New Voyages and Travels.

Ancient Navigation.

A discovery was recently made in the environs of the Cape of Good Hope, which is highly interesting to history. While digging a cave, the workmen found the hull of an ancient vessel, constructed of cedar, which is believed to be the remains of a Phœnician galley. If this appropriation be just, there is no longer room to doubt that the bold navigators of Tyre had reached the south point of Africa: and if they actually gained that point, we may infer that they navigated also the Eastern ocean.

Indian Wild Ass.

General Sir D. Ochterlony lately despatched, as a present from the Nawab of Bhawulpoor to governor-general the marquis of Hastings, a beautiful wild ass, of that species called by the natives *Gor Khur.* This elegant creature is described as being eleven or twelve hands high, of a beautiful light fawn or cream colour, with long ears, and large black eyes. In disposition it is untractable, and in this as well as in every other respect excepting the colour, resembles the zebra. It is said to be a complete model of strength, beauty, and agility.—*Asiatic Mirror.*

On Sounds inaudible by certain Ears.

At the sitting of the Royal Society of London, of June 29th, a paper by Dr. Wollaston was read, entitled, "On Sounds inaudible by certain Ears." The author, after some introductory remarks, proceeded to describe a peculiar insensibility to certain sounds in persons not otherwise deaf, which he was led to observe by trying different modes of diminishing the sense of hearing in himself. He found, for example, that when the membrana tympani was thrown into a state of tension by external pressure by closing the nose and mouth, and expanding the chest, the ear was rendered insensible to grave tones, while its sensibility to sharper sounds was not affected. In this case all sounds below F in the bass cliff were inaudible.

In the healthy state of the ear, the power of discerning low sounds is great, and of uncertain limits; but if we attend to the opposite extremity of the scale of audible sounds, and with a series of small pipes exceeding each other in sharpness, observe their effects successively upon the ears of different persons, we shall find considerable difference in their powers of hearing them, and see reason to infer that the sense of hearing in man is more limited than has been supposed. The author's attention was particularly called to this circumstance by observing a person insensible to the sound of a small organ pipe, which, with respect to acuteness, was far within the limits of his own hearing. By subsequent examination, it was found that this person's hearing terminated at a note four octaves above the middle E of the pianoforte. Other instances were then referred to of the insensibility of certain persons to various acute sounds; such as the chirping of the grass-hopper, cricket, and sparrow, and especially the squeak of the bat, the existence of which is unknown to many individuals from its being inaudible to them. The pitch of this sound was stated to be about five octaves above the middle E before mentioned. The author fixed the limits of his own hearing at six octaves above the same note, and stated that from numerous trials he was induced to think that the interval of a single note between two sounds was sufficient to render the higher note inaudible. The range of human hearing includes upwards of nine octaves, the whole of which are distinctly audible to most ears, although the vibrations of the acuter sounds are 600 or 700 times more frequent than those of the lower; and the author concluded by observing that it is very probable that other animals are so organized as to be able to distinguish sounds still more acute, and of course inaudible by human ears, and thus to possess what may be considered as a new sense.

AMERICAN ANTIQUITIES.

The "American Antiquarian Society" was incorporated in November, 1812, by an act of the legislature of Massachusetts, for purposes briefly announced in the preamble to the constitution, as follows:

"Whereas the collection and preservation of the antiquities of our country, and of curious and valuable productions in art

and nature, have a tendency to enlarge the sphere of human knowledge, aid the progress of science, to perpetuate the history of moral and political events, and to improve and interest posterity: Therefore, be it enacted," &c.

The first volume of *Archæologia Americana, or Transactions and Collections of the American Antiquarian Society*, has just appeared, in 436 pages octavo, neatly printed. We are much pleased with this attempt to give something like form and durability to the fragments of the early history of our country, and to preserve a record of the antiquities and monuments of the people of other days, the origin of which is already forgotten, and which are themselves fading away, under the dilapidations of time, assisted by the rapid progress of settlement and cultivation. We copy entire the preface to the work, and propose hereafter, to make some brief extracts from the interesting contents of the volume. [*Nat. Intel.*

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THE PREFACE.

The utility of public institutions formed for the express purpose of preserving valuable remains of ancient time, and of affording a safe repository for the discoveries which have resulted from the researches of scientific and inquisitive men, has been fully tested by the experience of the old world.

The persuasion that a national institution of a similar nature would be promotive of the interests of science, literature, and the arts, in the United States, gave rise to the American Antiquarian Society. Its origin and design are clearly stated in the introductory part of this volume. Its success has thus far exceeded the humble expectation of its founders; and the prospect of its increasing usefulness encourages the continued efforts of its friends.

In addition to the munificent donations of the president, the bequest of the late reverend and learned Dr. Bentley has enlarged the library of the society by nine hundred volumes of the works of distinguished German authors, by copies of some of the best works printed in New England, and by a variety of rare and valuable manuscripts in the Persian, Arabic, and other languages: and has also greatly enriched their cabinet.

Individual members are daily sending to the society books and articles of curiosity, which will be interesting to posterity. The national, and most of the state legislatures, regularly forward to the library all laws and resolves passed by them; and there is reason to expect that a complete series of similar acts will, in future, be received from each state in the union. Then the writer of history, and all individuals, disposed to examine the legislative code of the respective governments, may find the whole collection in the archives of the society.

It is presumed that the proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society have given a stimulus to the researches into the monuments, yet to be found, in the northwestern section of our country.

The greater portion of the original articles given in this publication consists of descriptions of these works. These were all communicated to the president of the society in the form of letters, and most of them were written with the haste and carelessness common to an epistolary correspondence. In these letters, important information was blended with much irrelative matter; and the publishing committee, at the expense of time and labour, was obliged, on their own judgment and responsibility, to select the parts which they deemed most worthy of public inspection.

The interesting and valuable communications of Caleb Atwater, esq. of Circleville, Ohio, are presented to the perusal of the intelligent and candid reader, under the disadvantages above mentioned. They were originally the hurried productions of a professional man, constantly engaged in various branches of business; the first, and the only draughts, were sent to the society. The distance of the author from the place of publication, rendered it impracticable to forward to him either the written copy or the printed proof sheets, for his revisal and correction. The committee regret the mistakes in names of places, and other errors, which have unavoidably occurred from reading letters not written in a manner the most legible; but the mistakes and errors, it is believed, are not important, nor more numerous than might have been expected under existing circumstances.

More recent examination has confirmed an opinion previously formed, that the works described in this publication were erected by a race of men widely different from any tribe of North American Indians known in modern times. It is also made probable that this ancient people emigrated from Asia, made their first settlement around the waters of our northern lakes, followed in their progress southwest the streams and rivers which empty into the

Gulf of Mexico, leaving, in every place of their residence, traces of the degree of their civilization and improvement. If the supposition be admitted, that the descendants of this people established the empires of Mexico and Peru, it will be acceded, that their attainments in civilized life, and in the arts and sciences, at the conquest of the country by the Spaniards, were not greater, when compared with their ancestors on the Mississippi, than those which man usually makes in the path of refinement during the period which must have elapsed.

Our knowledge of this singular nation is as yet very limited. Dr. Robertson justly observes, "It is extremely difficult to procure satisfactory information concerning nations while they remain uncivilized. To discover their true character under this rude form, and to select the features by which they are distinguished, requires an observer possessed of no less impartiality than discernment." If it be thus difficult to take the picture of the living man, what must be the labour of drawing a portrait of him from the works of his hands, which for ages have been mouldering away? But, *nil desperandum.* Researches are now making through the western country with renewed vigour, and new discoveries are daily made.

The indefatigable Mr. Atwater is zealously pursuing his inquiries; and, in a letter recently received, he gives additional promise of a successful result of his labours. "I continue," says he, "to receive, by every mail, specimens of minerals, and drawings of ancient works, accompanied by descriptions of them; specimens of something either curious or valuable, relative to the natural history or antiquities of this country. The objects themselves are numerous all over this great secondary region. It is, indeed, nothing but one vast cemetery of the beings of past ages. Man and his works, the mammoth, tropical animals, the cassia tree and other tropical plants, are all found here, reposing together in the same formation. By what catastrophe they were overwhelmed and buried here in the same strata, I know not, unless it was the general deluge.

"Rocks containing the most lively impressions of tropical plants will soon be in my possession, through the kindness of E. Granger, esq. of Zanesville. The impressions of the trunk, branches, leaves, and even blossoms, of the cassia, have been discovered, drawn, and described by him. These impressions are perfect, lively, and distinct, on the sandstone."

Should the present work meet with public patronage, as materials are fast accumulating, a second volume may soon be published, under the auspices of the society.

Worcester, June 20, 1820.

Agriculture.

FROM THE AMERICAN FARMER.

Union of Orchard Grass and Clover.

Culpepper Court House, Sept. 12, 1820.

Mr. Skinner—In your last number, a Farmer requests information respecting the union of Orchard Grass with Clover, &c. and having myself for about 20 years followed the system, I will with pleasure offer my experience respecting it. Perhaps there are no other two grasses that can be sown together with so great advantage.—By their union I am convinced that the crop is nearly double what it would be if either were sown separately; they grow and flourish well together, come to maturity about the same time, and clover is supported from falling by the uncommon strength of the orchard grass. The *common red clover** and orchard grass are among the earliest of all grasses; they suit admirably together if properly managed; they should be sown on inclosed lots, and never be pastured, or the tender clover will soon be destroyed by the treading of the beasts, and even the crop of orchard grass, though uncommonly hardy, will thereby be greatly diminished. I commonly commence cutting and feeding from my lots in April, when the grass gets up to about 12 or 18 inches; one acre affording a sufficiency of green food for 8 or 10 head of horses or cattle from that time until frost. From the conveniences and advantages to be derived from lots like these, is it not wonderful they are not more common? The ground to be sown in orchard grass and common red clover, should be well manured and ploughed deep in November; let it lay undisturbed until March following, then as early in that month as the weather will admit, give another dressing of manure, cross plough and harrow the ground until it is well pulverized; this done, mix a half bushel of orchard grass seed with a bushel of plaister, which sow on one acre; then 3 quarts of clover seed in as much more plais-

* There is a sort of grass called Sappling Clover, much like the red, only that it comes later; a union with it and timothy no doubt would answer well, they being matured about the same time.

ter, and sow it likewise; give the ground a light harrowing to cover the seed. Oats might be sown and ploughed in before the seed is sown; but I would prefer omitting the oats, as from their growth they are apt to smother the young grass; should weeds put up, they should be drawn up, and the grass while young be kept clean.

About 12 bushels of orchard grass seed will be sent to Mr. William A. Knox, merchant, Fredericksburg, in the course of a few weeks. Persons wishing to be supplied can be furnished at $3.50 per bushel, by leaving their orders with that gentleman. A CULPEPPER FARMER.

Record.

COMMENCEMENT.

The anniversary commencement of the college of New Jersey was held at Princeton on the 27th ult. when the following young gentlemen, *alumni* of the college, were admitted to the degree of Bachelor of Arts, viz.

James W. Alexander, Caleb H. Andruss, Richard Bard, James Bayard, Samuel I. Bayard, George W. Blight, William Brearly, Alexander Brown, John T. Brown, Orlando Brown, Zebulon Butler, William M. Carter, Thomas Chambers, Clement Cox, George W. Crawford, John S. Donnell, James C. Finley, William P. Finley, John V. Garritson, James N. Gholson, Henry W. Green, Daniel Haines, Jeptha Harrison, William Ludwell Hodgson, James B. Hyndshaw, Alfred Iverson, Edward N. Kirk, Wm. G. Krebs, Harvey Lindsly, Ebenezer Mason, George W. Massey, Alexander Mazyck, Province M'Cormick, Hugh Patten, Henry M. Read, George B. Rodney, Alison Ross, Cornelius C. Suydam, Edward H. Swayze, Samuel K. Talmage, Edward Thomas, William Walker, Benjamin Ward.

The following gentlemen *alumni* of the college were admitted to the second degree in the arts, viz.

George W. Jacobs, David M. Magie, Benjamin Ogden, Jacob L. Baldwin, William B. Barton, John H. Van Court, Charles S. Stewart, Eli W. Caruthers, John Pierce, Bowes R. M'Ilvaine, Charles P. M'Ilvaine, Hon. John W. Walker, John A. Taylor, Amzi Babbit, William H. Sloan.

The Rev. William C. Brownlee, A. M. of Glasgow University, was admitted *ad eundem*.

The honorary degree of Master of Arts was conferred on—

The Rev. Jacob Green, of Queen's College.

Rev. John C. Baker, pastor of the Lutheran church at Germantown, Penn.

Mr. Robert B. Croes, of Queen's College.

George Waldburg, of Georgia.

Commodore Charles Stewart, of the United States navy.

Lieutenant Robert F. Stockton, do. do.

The degree of Doctor in Divinity was conferred on—

The Rev. Conrad Speece, of Virginia.

Rev. George Burden, of London.

Rev. John Phillip, of the Cape of Good Hope.

The degree of Doctor of Laws, was conferred on the honourable Robert Goodloe Harper, of Maryland, and on William Johnson, esq. of New York.

Princeton, Sept. 29th, 1820.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

We have in our hands a regular file of the Madrid "Gazette of the Government" to the 5th of August, and a single number of the date of the 29th of the same month, received by the schooner Tom, which arrived at this port on Thursday last, in a short passage from St. Andero. The important news of a revolution in Portugal, and a serious attempt at revolution in Paris, brought by this arrival, was given in the Philadelphia Gazette of the day before yesterday, in translations, a part of which we have copied. An arrival at Boston from St. Ubes also furnishes information of the event in Portugal, and brings two proclamations of the Portuguese patriots, which indicate that they are acting in the same spirit and upon the same grounds as the Spanish liberals. A St. Ubes date of the 2d ult. mentions, as the latest news from Lisbon, that the Portuguese government was treating with the army, the prime agents of the revolution, and would call a Cortes without delay. The Spanish constitution is said to be the choice of the troops.

We are not surprised to find it among the incidents of this happy vicissitude of Portuguese affairs, that the English military commanders have been deposed, and all posts held by the English transferred to natives. A strong antipathy has uniformly been felt in Portugal against the British, notwithstanding the close political union so long maintained between the two governments; and the jealousy entertained of the rank and authority assigned to British officers, may be, we think, enumerated among the causes of the revolt of the Portuguese troops. The British government has, however, from the situation of Portugal, the ability to throw great obstruction in the way of the confirmation of their object, particularly if it should not be favoured by the mass of the nation. We have yet to learn the dispositions of the Portuguese people, from whom, judging by the representations of travellers, we should think we were not entitled to expect half as much as from the Spanish, in relation to their own rights and interests, and a due sense of the importance of order and forbearance.

No event could tend more to assure the consolidation of the new Spanish system, than the establishment of a similar one in Portugal. To this quarter, the disaffected of Spain have looked as to a strong hold and a magazine of resources; it was the avenue through which foreign powers could hope to make some impression—the apostolic junta, using it as a refuge and finding an auxiliary in its government, might prove, if not ultimately successful, at least formidable and exceedingly troublesome in the prosecution of their aim of counter revolution. One of the consequences from the constitutional order of things in Portugal, should it prevail, to which we may look, is the independence of

that kingdom on Brazil; and another—notwithstanding the mutual hatred of the Portuguese and Spaniards since their separation in the seventeenth century—their union under the same head. This would be a noble result, and would create a power in the peninsula which might bid defiance to holy leagues and circular memorials, of whatever origin and purport.

We feel no regret nor surprise at the miscarriage of the Parisian plot against the Bourbon sway in France. It is not to be seen how that country could gain by a change; particularly by the transfer of the sceptre to a member of the Bonaparte family. A revolution cannot be temperate there, with so great a ferment of passion and division of sentiment. The disposition to try the substitution of another rule seems to be wanting in the military as well as the civil ranks. Those without whose lead every attempt of the kind must be futile, the old generals, the chief dignitaries military and civil, have the appearance of being resolutely devoted to the Bourbon dynasty.

In the Madrid Gazette of the 29th August, there is nothing of particular interest save the account of the conspiracy in Paris. It does not even intimate the existence of any disturbance in Spain. The Cortes had been occupied during the month in discussing and enacting important reforms. On the 1st a detailed plan was submitted by the secretary of war for the formation of seventy-three battalions of "active national militia." This militia was, in addition to its regular duties, to be charged with the suppression of the bands of robbers, whose number and depredations had engaged the particular attention of the Cortes. They are stated to be composed of men whom the want of employment and the wretched penury caused by the former government, had driven to desperation. The committee on ecclesiastical affairs reported on the 3d August, that the royal decree allowing the secularization of monks, at their will, should be extended to NUNS. The report was adopted, after a curious discussion, for a translation of which we will endeavour to find room in our next gazette. It has been enacted that the sale of the national domains, including the property of the inquisition, appropriated to the payment of the national debt, shall take place immediately. They are valued at eight hundred millions of reales. A loan of two hundred millions has been opened under the sanction of the Cortes. This assembly had taken into consideration the situation of the hospitals, of which the funds appear to have gone into the same channels as they did in the time of Gil Blas. It was also occupied on "a rural code," the freedom of the home trade, the regulation of salaries, and the purification of the administrative departments from the corruptions with which they abounded. We are sorry to observe that it suffers discourses to be *read* by its members, according to the practice of the French legislature. The gazette of the government contains all the details of the Neapolitan revolution. Don Luis de Onis presented his credentials to the regenerated court of Naples on the 21st July. The Spanish ambassador to the French court celebrated on the same day, in Paris, the opening of the Cortes by a brilliant fete and illumination. [*Nat. Gaz.*

Paris, August 20.

The government has been for some time advised of the existence of plots for exciting the troops to rebellion. It was assured that the excellent spirit which animated the French soldiers would render abortive the projects of some individuals, always ready to sacrifice their honour and the repose of the country to their pride and avarice. The government watched their steps. These fools thought it was in their power to overturn the throne and the institutions which France owes to her king. A certain number of the officers and sergeants of the corps composing the garrison of Paris were seduced, and some of the royal guard were among the conspirators.

Last night these officers proposed to go to the barracks, to assemble the soldiers, to march against the palace of our king, and proclaim as sovereign a member of the family of Bonaparte; but several of those, who were supposed to be seduced by perfidious propositions, informed their chiefs without loss of time of the plot which was about to be put in execution. The government could no longer delay. The persons concerned in this criminal conspiracy were arrested by the gens d'armes.

It appears that the plan of the conspirators was to get possession of Vincennes, where a fire broke out about 3 P. M., but was soon extinguished. This was done it is presumed to create confusion, so as to favour a surprise. France has a right to expect that this attempt will be punished in such a manner as to strike a terror into those who, forgetful of their duty and their oaths, wish to turn against social order those arms intended for its defence.

The city of Paris enjoys the most perfect tranquillity.

The citizens were apprized at the same moment of the existence of the plot, and of the imprisonment of its authors.

Madrid, August 31.

By an express which has arrived at this court from Corunna, which place it left on the 28th inst. we learn the following news of the revolution of Portugal; that it was commenced in Oporto and its provinces by the Portuguese troops, who proclaimed the constitution, and whatever the Cortes might institute, and their august sovereign Don John the Sixth; that several other garrisons had followed this example; that D. N. Barros, a Portuguese colonel of the 9th regiment of infantry, had taken command of the province of Minho, general Wilson, who commanded there having been displaced; that all the offices held by the English had been given to natives; and finally, that the liberty of the nation had been proclaimed at Lisbon, and the authorities arrested after some bloodshed. This information is confirmed by other expresses which have just arrived from Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

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SATURDAY SERMON.

No. 8.

"She maketh fine linen and selleth it, and delivereth girdles unto the merchant."

PROV. xxxvi. 24.

While I was meditating upon a subject for my next sermon, the postboy brought me the following letter, to which I readily postpone my intended speculations. The wishes of the fair writer will be more effectually served by printing her note just as it was received, than by any observations of mine. YORICK.

"Sir—A lady requests that you will take an early occasion to call the public attention to a kind of distress that is heavily felt even in the most prosperous period. I allude to the difficulty with which a woman dependent on her own exertions, can procure her daily bread; and more particularly to the constant anxiety and embarrassment felt by young women of cultivated understanding and refined feelings, who have unexpectedly been cast upon their own resources. This is not a misfortune, merely because it requires the exercise of unremitting industry: I would not cherish so sickly a sensibility as that which repines at such a necessity. But it is to be lamented that even the most incessant application is insufficient to insure a competence, and shelter the timid and inexperienced from the unhappiness incident to a familiar intercourse with the busy and selfish world.

"When the loss of a parent breaks up the circle that gathered round his table, and his sorrowing children are cast at once upon the world, with no time for the gradual return to ordinary feelings and common employments, how many things occur to give additional keenness to the pang of separation, and add new sorrow to the bitterness of death! The *sons* are comparatively fortunate, as an industrious and economical man can always command the comforts of life, and even in early youth there is but little difficulty in forming contracts by which present wants are supplied, and the means of future prosperity are insured; but what resource is left for *daughters*, even for those who have been reared to habits of industrious usefulness? How can their own hands supply them with the means of preserving their former respectability and prospects in life? The employments that occupied their time when at home, cannot be sought elsewhere without degradation. Drawing and painting and music, which afford so convenient a resource for the distressed heroines of European romances, are useless here, and I know of no female occupation, except that of an instructer, which requires such a degree of mental ability as to enable the possessor to demand a high price for its exercise. This employment, however, cannot from its own nature be sufficient for many, and the young generally want the experience in life which is necessary to its successful prosecution; and it still remains highly desirable to afford to young women an opportunity of procuring for themselves a comfortable and respectable subsistence. It appears to me, that were it not for the great quantity of such things brought from abroad, *embroidery and ornamental needle work* would be a sufficient resource, and would be such a one as could be wished, inasmuch as this employment might be pursued in the quiet retirement so proper for a young woman, and so grateful to one unaccustomed to the active competition of the world. I once asked a member of Congress if a law could not be made to prevent the importation of such goods, but he explained to me the impropriety of national interference with the employments of industry. As Fashion, however, can make laws which are obeyed as implicitly as those of Congress, I wish you to make an appeal to the public, in the hope that it may be made a rule to use only American needle work, and thus add the merit of patriotism to the ornaments of taste. Ask the attention of the gay and the young to this subject, and exhort those who are qualified to lead the ranks of elegance, to give their influence to the promotion of a scheme

which may be productive of such important benefits. The nation might gain no increase of riches from using domestic instead of foreign embroidery, but it would derive advantages far dearer to humanity —those of preserving unwounded and unsullied the tenderness and delicacy of its daughters, and softening to the helpless part of mankind the inevitable misfortunes of human life." "H."

Literature and Science.

The number of books in all the public libraries of Germany (including Austria and Prussia), amounts at least to four millions, without reckoning numerous pamphlets, periodical publications, dissertations and manuscripts.

Professor Goerg, of Leipsic, has proved it is said, very satisfactorily, that the vinegar of wood (pyrolignous acid) possesses all the antiseptic powers that have been ascribed to it. Anatomical preparations and other substances in which animal putrefaction commenced were completely restored by contact with this acid.

An animal body, in the opinion of this professor, may be readily converted into a mummy by this substance. The discovery of this acid is likely to become important to anatomy, domestic economy and medicine.

In the empire of Austria there are no less than twenty-three botanic gardens.

The unfolding of the Herculanean manuscripts is carried on with very considerable success, by a chemical process, under the direction of sir H. Davy. Of 1696 pieces which have been found, 88 have been happily unrolled, and the writing is very legible—319 are not legible, and 24 have been given as presents to foreign princes. There remains 1265, of which 100 or 120 will, it is hoped, be saved from oblivion.

A plant, called *Chinininha*, by the natives of Peru, has been analyzed at Madrid. It proves to be an excellent febrifuge.

The number of *new* works and new impressions offered for sale at the fair of Leipsic last year, by 336 booksellers, amounted to 3194.

Senifelder, the original inventor of the lithographic art, (printing on stone) has contrived a substitute for the carbonate of lime used for that purpose, which has hitherto been found in perfection only in Bavaria. He forms an artificial plate of stony substance attached to paper which he calls *Papyrographic*. It is said to possess great advantages. The machines are offered for sale at Paris, at 20 to 30 dollars each.

A new method of taking the lives of animals destined for the market, which greatly diminishes their sufferings, is now employed in London. It is effected by means of azotic gas. The meat, it is said, preserves its freshness better, has a more agreeable taste, and is more easily preserved. The greater number of the butchers are in the use of this method. [*Rev. Encyc. de Paris, Jan.* 1820.

An academy of sciences has been formed at Cadiz, which holds its sittings in one of the halls of the medical and surgical college.

At the village of Chateauneuf, in the department of the Lower Alps in France, a church was struck by three successive thunderbolts on the 11th of July, 1819, about 11 A. M. and during the installation of a new rector. The company were nearly all thrown down; many of them were driven out of the door; 82 were wounded, and 9 were killed. The priest who was celebrating mass was not affected, on account, it is believed, of his silken dress. All the dogs in the church were killed. The house was filled with black smoke.

Hot water is now carried through the streets of Paris, as well as other cities of Europe, for the purpose of supplying baths in private houses. It is transported in large casks, in which are stoves, so constructed that the heat is spent almost entirely in raising the temperature of the water. It is forced from the casks through pipes into the apartment required, and offered at a very moderate price.

M. Gonord, of Paris, has discovered the art of enlarging or diminishing the scale or size of an engraving on copper, without changing the plate. In other words, if an engraved plate of copper be given him, he can make use of it in such a manner as to obtain impressions of any size he pleases, either greater or less than those of the plate. From the plates of a folio atlas, for example, he can produce an atlas in octavo and without changing the plates. He is able also, by the method he adopts, to make impressions upon various materials, as paper, metal, porcelain, marble, &c.

Steam navigation is now making a rapid progress in Great Britain. There are on the river Clyde 25 steam-boats, the largest of which has a burden of 91 tons, and the least of 35. Twelve of those boats pass between Glasgow and Grenock. There are four steam-boats on the Frith of Forth, which are said to carry during the summer 500 passengers daily.

Steam-boats also ply on the Tay, the Humber, the Trent, the Thames, the Dee, and the Mersey. Passengers are now conveyed by steam from Liverpool to Belfast and Glasgow, and from Dublin to Holyhead.

The Scotch are very locomotive. The number of passengers which were conveyed along the Forth and Clyde canal between Glasgow and Edinburgh, amounted in 1818, to 94,250; between Glasgow and Paisley, on the Ardrossan canal, 51,700; and from Glasgow along Monkland canal, 18,000.

Miscellany.

On the living Novelists.—"The author of Waverley."

Here are we in a bright and breathing world.
Wordsworth.

We esteem the noble productions which the great novelist of Scotland has poured forth with startling speed from his rich treasury, not only as multiplying the sources of delight to thousands, but as shedding the most genial influences on the taste and feeling of the people. These, with their fresh spirit of health, have counteracted the workings of that blasting spell by which the genius of lord Byron once threatened strangely to fascinate and debase the vast multitude of English readers. Men, seduced by their noble poet, had begun to pay homage to mere energy, to regard virtue as low and mean compared with lofty crime, and to think that high passion carried in itself a justification for its most fearful excesses. He inspired them with a feeling of diseased curiosity to know the secrets of dark bosoms, while he opened his own perturbed spirit to their gaze. His works, and those imported from Germany, tended to give to our imagination an introspective cast, to perplex it with metaphysical subtleties, and to render our poetry "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought." The genius of our country was thus in danger of being perverted from its purest uses, to become the minister of vain philosophy, and the anatomist of polluted natures.

"The author of Waverley" (as he delights to be styled) has gently weaned it from its idols, and restored to it its warm youthful blood and human affections. Nothing can be more opposed to the gloom, the inward revolvings, and morbid speculations, which the world once seemed inclined to esteem as the sole prerogatives of the bard, than his exquisite creations. His persons are no shadowy abstractions—no personifications of a dogma—no portraits of the author varied in costume, but similar in features. With all their rich varieties of character, whether their heroical spirit touches on the godlike, or their wild eccentricities border on the farcical, they are men fashioned of human earth, and warm with human sympathies. He does not seek for the sublime in the mere intensity of burning passion, or for sources of enjoyment in those feverish gratifications which some would teach us to believe the only felicities worthy of high and impassioned souls. He writes everywhere with a keen and healthful relish for all the good things of life—constantly refreshes us where we least expected it, with a sense of that pleasure which is spread through the earth "to be caught in stray gifts by whoever will find," and brightens all things with the spirit of gladness. There is little of a meditative or retrospective cast in his works. Whatever age he chooses for his story lives before us; we become contemporaries of all his persons, and sharers in all their fortunes. Of all men who have ever written, excepting Shakspeare, he has perhaps the least of exclusiveness, the least of those feelings which keep men apart from their kind. He has his own predilections—and we love him the better for them even when they are not ours—but they never prevent him from grasping with cordial spirit all that is human. His tolerance is the most complete, for it extends to adverse bigotries; his love of enjoyment does not exclude the ascetic from his respect, nor does his fondness for hereditary rights and time-honoured institutions prevent his admiration of the fiery zeal of a sectary. His genius shines with an equal light on all—illuminating the vast hills of purple heath, the calm breast of the quiet water, and the rich masses of the grove—now gleaming with a sacred light on the distant towers of some old monastery, now softening the greenwood shade, now piercing the gloom of the rude cave where the old covenanter lies—free, and universal, and bounteous, as

the sun—and pouring its radiance with a like impartiality "upon a living and rejoicing world."

We shall not attempt, in this slight sketch, to follow our author regularly through all his rich and varied creations; but shall rather consider his powers in general of natural description—of skill in the delineation of character—and of exciting high and poetical interest, by the gleams of his fancy, the tragic elevation of his scenes, and the fearful touches which he delights to borrow from the world of spirits.

In the vivid description of natural scenery our author is wholly without a rival, unless sir Walter Scott will dispute the pre-eminence with him; and, even then, we think the novelist would be found to surpass the bard. The free grace of nature has, of late, contributed little to the charm of our highest poetry. Lord Byron has always, in his reference to the majestic scenery of the universe, dealt rather in grand generalities than minute pictures—has used the turbulence of the elements as symbols of inward tempests, and sought the vast solitudes and deep tranquillity of nature, but to assuage the fevers of the soul. Wordsworth—who, amidst the contempt of the ignorant and of the worldly wise, has been gradually and silently moulding all the leading spirits of the age—has sought communion with nature, for other purposes than to describe her external forms. He has shed on all creation a sweet and consecrating radiance, far other than "the light of common day." In his poetry the hills and streams appear, not as they are seen by vulgar eyes, but as the poet himself, in the holiness of his imagination, has arrayed them. They are peopled not with the shapes of old superstition, but with the rich shadows of the poet's thought, the dreams of a glory that shall be. They are resonant—not with the voice of birds, or the soft whisperings of the breeze, but with the echoes from beyond the tomb. Their lowliest objects—a dwarf bush, an old stone, a daisy, or a small celandine—affect us with thoughts as deep, and inspire meditations as profound, as the loveliest scene of reposing beauty, or the wildest region of the mountains—because the heart of the poet is all in all—and the visible objects of his love are not dear to us for their own colours or forms, but for the sentiment which he has tenderly linked to them, and which they bring back upon our souls. We would not have this otherwise for all the romances in the world. But it gladdens us to see the intrinsic claims of nature on our hearts asserted, and to feel that she is, for her own sake, worthy of deep love. It is not as the richest index of divine philosophy alone that she has a right to our affections; and, therefore, we rejoice that in our author she has found a votary to whom her works are in themselves "an appetite, a feeling, and a love," and who finds, in their contemplation, "no need of a remoter charm, by thought supplied, or any interest unborrowed from the eye." Every gentle swelling of the ground—every gleam of the water—every curve and rock of the shore—all varieties of the earth, from the vastest crag to the soft grass of the woodland walk, and all changes of the heaven from "morn to noon, from noon to latest eve,"—are placed before us in his works with a distinctness beyond that which the painter's art can attain, while we seem to breathe the mountain air, or drink in the freshness of the vallies. We perceive the change in the landscape at every step of the delightful journey through which he guides us. Our recollection never confounds any one scene with another, although so many are laid in the same region, and are alike in general character. The soft lake among the hills, on which the cave of Donald Bean bordered—that near which the clan of the M'Gregors combated, and which closed in blue calmness over the body of Maurice—and that which encircled the castle of Julian Avenel—are distinct from each other in the imagination, as the loveliest scenes which we have corporally visited. What in softest beauty can exceed the description of the ruins of St. Ruth; in the lovely romantic the approach to the pass of Aberfoil; in varied lustre the winding shores of Ellangowan bay; in rude and dreary majesty the Highland scenes, where Ronald of the Mist lay hidden; and in terrific sublimity the rising of the sea on Fairport Sands, and the perils of sir Arthur Wardour and his daughter? Our author's scenes of comparative barrenness are enchanting by the vividness of his details, and the fond delight with which he dwells on their redeeming features. We seem to know every little plot of green, every thicket of copsewood, and every turn and cascade of the stream in the vale of Glendearg, and to remember each low bush in the barren scene of the skirmish between the Covenanters and Claverhouse, as though we had been familiar with it in childhood. The descriptions of this author are manifestly rendered more vivid by the intense love which he bears to

his country—not only to her luxuriant and sublime scenery, but "her bare earth, and mountains bare, and grass in the green field." He will scarcely leave a brook, a mountain ash, or a lichen on the rocks of her shore, without due honour. He may fitly be regarded as the genius of Scotland, who has given her a poetical interest, a vast place in the imagination, which may almost compensate for the loss of that political independence, the last struggling love for which he so nobly celebrates.

"The author of Waverley" is, however, chiefly distinguished by the number, the spirit, and the individuality of his characters. We know not, indeed, where to begin or to end with the vast crowd of their genial and noble shapes which come thronging on our memory. His ludicrous characters are dear to us, because they are seldom merely quaint or strange, the dry oddities of fancy, but have as genuine a kindred with humanity as the most gifted and enthusiastic of their fellows. The laughter which they excite is full of social sympathy, and we love them and our nature the better while we indulge it. Whose heart does not claim kindred with Baillie Nichol Jarvie, while the Glasgow weaver, without losing one of his nice peculiarities, kindles into honest warmth with his ledger in hand, and, in spite of broadcloth, grows almost romantic? In whom does a perception of the ludicrous for a moment injure the veneration which the brave, stout-hearted, and chivalrous baron of Bradwardine inspires? Who shares not in the fond enthusiam of Oldbuck for black letter, in his eager and tremulous joy at grasping rare books at low prices, and in his discoveries of Roman camps and monuments, which we can hardly forgive Edie Ochiltree for disproving? Compared with these genial persons, the portraits of mere singularity—however inimitably finished—are harsh and cold; of these, indeed, the works of our author afford scarcely more than one signal example—captain Dalgetty—who is a mere piece of ingenious mechanism, like an automaton chess player, and with all his cleverness gives us little pleasure, for he excites us little sympathy. Almost all the persons of these novels, diversified as they are, are really endowed with some deep and elevating enthusiasm, which, whether breaking through eccentricities of manner, perverted by error, or mingled with crime, ever asserts the majesty of our nature, its deep affections, and undying powers. This is true not only of the divine enthusiasm of Flora Mac Ivor—of the sweet heroism of Jeannie Deans—of the angelic tenderness and fortitude of Rebecca, but of the puritanic severities and awful zeal of Balfour of Burley, and the yet more frightful energy of Macbriar, equally ready to sacrifice a blameless youth, and to bear without shrinking the keenest of mortal agonies. In the fierce and hunted child of the mist—in the daring and reckless libertine Staunton—in the fearful Elspeth—in the vengeful wife of M'Gregor—are traits of wild and irregular greatness, fragments of might and grandeur, which show how noble and sacred a thing the heart of man is, in spite of its strangest debasements and perversions. How does the inimitable portrait of Claverhouse at first excite our hatred for that carelessness of human misery, that contempt for the life of his fellows, that cold hauteur and finished indifference which are so vividly depicted; and yet how does his mere soldierly enthusiasm redeem him at last, and almost persuade us that the honour and fame of such a man were cheaply purchased by a thousand lives! We can scarcely class Rob Roy among these mingled characters. He has nothing but the name and the fortune of an outlaw and a robber. He is, in truth, one of the noblest of heroes—a prince of the heather and the rock—whose very thirst for vengeance is tempered and harmonized by his fondness for the wild and lovely scenes of his home. Indeed, the influences of majestic scenery are to be perceived tinging the rudest minds which the author has made to expatiate amidst its solitudes. The passions even of Burley and of Macbriar, borrow a grace from the steep crags, the deep masses of shade, and the silent caves, among which they were nurtured, as the most rapid and perturbed stream which rushes through a wild and romantic region bears some reflection of noble imagery on its impetuous surface. To some of his less stern but unlettered personages, nature seems to have been a kindly instructer, nurturing high thoughts within them, and well supplying to them all the lack of written wisdom. The wild sublimity of Meg Merrilies is derived from her long converse with the glories of creation; the floating clouds have lent to her something of their grace; she has contemplated the rocks till her soul is firm as they, and gazed intently on the face of nature, until she has become half acquainted with its mysteries. The old king's beadsman has not journeyed for years in vain among the hills and woods;

their beauty has sunk into his soul; and his days seem bound each to each by "natural piety" which he has learned among them.

That we think there is much of true poetical genius—much of that which softens, refines, and elevates humanity in the works of this author—may be inferred from our remarks on his power of embodying human character. The gleams of a soft and delicate fancy are tenderly cast over many of their scenes—heightening that which is already lovely, relieving the gloomy, and making even the thin blades of barren regions shine refreshingly on the eyes. We occasionally meet with a pure and pensive beauty, as in Pattieson's description of his sensations in his evening walks after the feverish drudgery of his school—with wild yet graceful fantasies, as in the songs of Davie Gellatly—or with visionary and aerial shapes, like the spirit of the House of Avenel. But the poetry of this author is, for the most part, of a far deeper cast—flowing from his intense consciousness of the mysteries of our nature, and constantly impressing on our minds the high sanctities and the moral destiny of our being. No one has ever made so impressive a use of the solemnities of life and death—of the awfulness which rests over the dying, and renders all their words and actions sacred; or of the fond retrospection, and the intense present enjoyment, snatched fearfully as if to secure it from fate, which are the peculiar blessings of a short and uncertain existence. Was ever the robustness of life—the mantling of the strong current of joyous blood—the high animation of health, spirits, and a stout heart, more vividly brought before the mind than in the description of Frank Kennedy's demeanour as he rides lustily forth, never to return?—or the fearful change from this hearty enjoyment of life to the chillness of mortality, more deeply impressed on the imagination than in all the minute examinations of the scene of his murder, the traces of the deadly contest, the last marks of the struggling footsteps, and the description of the corpse at the foot of the crag? Can a scene of mortality be conceived more fearful than that where Bertram in the den of Dern-cleugh, witnesses the last agonies of one over whom Mag Merrilies is chaunting her wild ditties to soothe the passage of the spirit? What a stupendous scene is that of the young fisher's funeral: the wretched father writhing in the contortions of agony—the mother silent in tender sorrow—the motley crew assembled to partake of strange festivity—and the old grandmother fearfully linking the living to the dead, now turning her wheel in apathy and unconsciousness—now drinking with frightful mirth to many "such merry meetings"—now, to the astonishment of the beholders rising to comfort her son, and intimating with horrid solemnity that there was more reason to mourn for her than for the departed! Equal in terrific power, is the view given us of the last confession and death of that "awful woman"—her intense perception of her long past guilt, with her deadness to all else—her yet quenchless hate to the object of her youthful vengeance, animating her frame with unearthly fire—her dying fancies that she is about to follow her mistress, and the broken images of old grandeur which flit before her as she perishes. These things are conceived in the highest spirit of tragedy, which makes life and death meet together—which exhibits humanity stripped of its accidents in all its depth and height—which impresses us at once with the victory of death, and of the eternity of those energies which it appears to subdue. There are also in these works, situations of human interest as intense as ever were invented—attended too with all that high apparel of the imagination, which renders the images of fear and anguish majestical. Such is that scene in the lone house after the defeat of the Covenanters, where Morton finds himself in the midst of a band of zealots, who regard him as given by God into their hands as a victim—where he is placed before the clock to gaze on the advances of the hand to the hour when he is to be slain, amidst the horrible devotion of his foes. The whole scene is, we think, without an equal in the conceptions which dramatic power has been able to embody. Its startling unexpectedness, yet its perfect probability to the imagination—the high tone and wild enthusiasm of character in the murderers; the sacrificial cast of their intended deed in their own raised and perverted thoughts; the fearful view given to the bodily senses of their prisoner of his remaining moments by the segment of the circle yet to be traversed by the finger of the clock before him, enable us to participate in the workings of his own dizzy soul, as he stands "awaiting till the sword destined to slay him crept out of its scabbard gradually, and, as it were by straw-breadths," and condemned to drink the bitterness of death "drop by drop," while his destined executioners seem "to alter their forms and features like the spectres in a feverish dream their features become larger and their faces more disturbed;" until the being

around him appear actually demons, the walls seem to drop with blood, and "the light tick of the clock thrills on his ear with such loud, painful distinctness, as if each sound were the prick of a bodkin inflicted on the naked nerve of the organ." The effect is even retrospectively heightened by the heroic deaths of the Covenanters immediately succeeding, which give a dignity and a consecration to their late terrific design. The trial and execution of Fergus Mac Ivor are also, in the most exalted sense of the term, tragical. They are not only of breathless interest from the external circumstances, nor of moral grandeur from the heroism of Fergus and his follower, but of poetic dignity from that power of imagination which renders for a time the rules of law sublime as well as fearful, and gives to all the formalities of a trial more than a judicial majesty. It is seldom, indeed, that the terrors of our author offend or shock us, because they are accompanied by that reconciling power which softens without breaking the current of our sympathies. But there are some few instances of unrelieved horror—or of anguish, which overmasters fantasy—as the strangling of Glossin by Dirk Hatteraich, the administering of the torture to Macbriar, and the bloody bridal of Lammermuir. If we compare these with the terrors of Burley in his cave—where, with his naked sword in one hand, and his Bible in the other, he wrestles with his own remorse, believing it, in the spirit of his faith, a fiend of Satan—and with the sinking of Ravenswood in the sands, we shall feel how the grandeur of religious thought in the first instance, and the stately scenery of nature and the air of the supernatural in the last, ennoble agony, and render horrors grateful to the soul.

We must not pass over, without due acknowledgment, the power of our author in the description of battles, as exhibited in his pictures of the engagement at Preston Pans; of the first skirmish with the Covenanters, in which they overcome Claverhouse; and of the battle in which they were, in turn, defeated. The art by which he contrives at once to give the mortal contest in all its breadth and vastness—to present it to us in the noblest masses; yet to make us spectators of each individual circumstance of interest in the field, may excite the envy of a painter. We know of nothing resembling these delineations in history or romance, except the descriptions given by Thucydides of the blockade of Platæa, of the Corcyræan massacres, of the attempt to retake Epipolæ in the night, of the great naval action before Syracuse, of all the romantic events of the Sicilian war, and the varied miseries of the Athenian army in their retreat under Nicias. In the life and spirit, the minuteness of the details—in the intermingling of allusions to the scenery of the contests—and in the general fervour breathed over the whole, there is a remarkable resemblance between these passages of the Greek historian, and the narratives of Scottish contests by the author of Waverley. There is, too, the same patriotic zeal in both; though the feeling in the former is of a more awful and melancholy cast, and that of the latter more light and cheerful. The Scottish novelist may, like the noblest of historians, boast that he has given to his country "Κτημα ες αιει"—a possession for ever!

It remains that we should say a word on the use made of the supernatural in these romances. There is, in the mode of its enjoyment, more of gusto—more that approaches to an actual belief in its wonders, than in the works of any other author of these incredulous times. Even Shakspeare himself, in his remote age, does not appear to have drank in so deeply the spirit of superstition as our novelist of the nineteenth century. He treats, indeed, all the fantasies of his countrymen with that gentle spirit of allowance and fond regard with which he always touches on human emotions. But he does not seem to have heartily partaken in them as awful realities. His witches have power to excite wonder, but little to chill men's blood. Ariel, the visions of Prospero's enchanted isle, the "quaint fairies and the dapper elves" of the Midsummer Night's Dream, glitter on the fancy, in a thousand shapes of dainty loveliness, but never affect us otherwise than as creations of the poet's brain. Even the ghost in Hamlet does not appal us half so fearfully as many a homely tale which has nothing to recommend it but the earnest belief of its tremulous reciter. There is little magic in the web of life, notwithstanding all the variety of its shades, as Shakspeare has drawn it. Not so is it with our author; his spells have manifest hold on himself, and, therefore, they are very potent with the spirits of his readers. No prophetic intimation in his works is ever suffered to fail. The spirit which appears to Fergus—the astronomical predictions of Guy Mannering—the eloquent curses, and more eloquent blessings, of Meg Merrilies—the dying denunciation of Mucklewrath—the old prophecy in the Bride of Lammermuir

—all are fulfilled to the very letter. The high and joyous spirits of Kennedy are observed by one of the bystanders as intimations of his speedy fate. We are far from disapproving of these touches of the superhuman, for they are made to blend harmoniously with the freshest hues of life, and, without destroying its native colouring, give to it a more solemn tinge. But we cannot extend our indulgence to the seer in the Legend of Montrose, or the Lady of Avenel in the Monastery; where the spirits of another world do not cast their shadowings on this, but stalk forth in open light, and "in form as palpable" as any of the mortal characters. In works of passion, fairies and ghosts can scarcely be "simple products of the common day," without destroying all harmony in our perceptions, and bringing the whole into discredit with the imagination as well as the feelings. Fairy tales are among the most exquisite things in the world, and so are delineations of humanity like those of our author; but they can never be blended without debasing the former into chill substances, or refining the latter into airy nothings.

We shall avoid the fruitless task of dwelling on the defects of this author—on the general insipidity of his lovers—on the want of skill in the development of his plots—on the clumsiness of his prefatory introductions—or the impotence of many of his conclusions. He has done his country and his nature no ordinary service. He has brought romance almost into our own times, and made the nobleness of humanity familiar to our daily thoughts. He has enriched history to us by opening such varied and delicious vistas to our gaze, beneath the range of its loftier events and more public characters. May his intellectual treasury prove exhaustless as the purse of Fortunatus, and may he dip into it unsparingly for the delight and benefit of his species! [*London New Monthly Mag.*

From the Annals of Philosophy.

*Biographical Account of M. Werner, late Professor of Mineralogy at Freiberg.**

Abraham Gotleb Werner was born on Sept. 25, 1750, at Wehran am Quiess, in Upper Lusatia. Endowed by nature with unusual quickness of understanding, and with the power of extensive observation, he was also gifted with a happy faculty of arrangement, a lively imagination, and a retentive memory. In conformity to the wish of his father, who had become the factor of a Count Solmischen Eisenhammer, Werner devoted himself from early youth to the same occupation. He received the rudiments of his education at the school of the Orphan Hospital at Buntzlau in Silesia, and was afterwards placed at the Academy of Freiberg; and from the last mentioned place he went to study at Leipzig. Here, and during his whole life, Werner struggled to acquire scientific information; and while he gained for himself reputation for his proficiency in general literature and the languages, he continued severe in judging of himself, and lenient and indulgent towards others, mild, affectionate, and generous; he was a true patriot, and a citizen of the world in the most honourable sense of the word.

It was at Leipzig, in the year 1774, that Werner, already more distinguished for his study of natural history than for that of the law, laid the firm foundation of those opinions relative to oryctognosy, of which he was the contriver. He supplied, instead of the confused mass of which this species of knowledge had hitherto consisted, those compendious descriptions, delivered in happily chosen, expressive, scientific language, which have accomplished the difficult end of placing in an intelligible point of view the principles of this science. The new method, from the comprehensive nature of its illustrations, soon became extensively known and adopted; and in 1780, Werner, in the translation of the system of Cronstedt, which he then published, explained, in a connected shape, his method of classification, and his opinions in general, illustrated and improved, since their first origin, by many alterations and additions. He published in 1791 a second account of his doctrines, after having received considerable additions to his mineralogical knowledge from his being employed in drawing a catalogue of the collection of minerals formed by Mr. Pabst, of Ohain.

In the year 1775, not long after he had commenced his career as an author, Werner obtained a permanent situation in the Academy of Freiberg, the earliest cradle of mineralogical science in Germany; and destined to flourish with renewed life in consequence of his labours. He was appointed, in addition to a professorship, superintendent of the museum, and here his

* Translated from "A Tribute to the Memory of Werner, by Charles Cæsar Ritter Von Leonhard," read before the Royal Academy of Sciences at Munich, Oct. 25, 1817, and published in vol. xxiii. of Schwiegger's Journal.

active temper for investigation and observation obtained a wide field, and by his unrestrained and enthusiastic exertions, in spite of much opposition, he raised in his favour a strong party feeling, and general admiration. The attempts to persecute Werner,* and to impede the introduction of his doctrines, had quite the contrary effect to what their authors intended, and contributed essentially to hasten the result so favourable and so brilliant to him. The boundaries of the science were soon enlarged by the effects of his favourite labours: geognosy, reduced to an intelligible shape, a work entirely the creation of Werner, being considered henceforth as a part of the science. His theory of the periods in the formation of mountains, his researches respecting rocks, and the nature of their aggregation into the masses of which the crust of the earth is composed, his reflections upon the internal structure of mountains, his theory respecting veins, his doctrine of the formations, and of the origin of the later traps and volcanoes, will convey the name of Werner to the latest posterity. Geognosy, as he formed it, may be considered the philosophy of mineralogy, the fairest and most perfect half of the philosophy of unorganized nature. Every question which is started on this subject, all objects connected with the structure of the earth, and which relate to the masses of which it is composed, are an appropriate exercise for an enlightened mind. Leibnitz, Descartes, Bacon, Burnet, Laplace, and all illustrious men of ancient and modern times, have respected this laborious species of research.

Werner laboured more by his lectures than by his writings, for he considered that the numberless works on mineralogical science, which he had consulted, had misled rather than instructed him, their authors appearing as if certain that the utmost extent of what was known on this subject was too imperfect for his attention. Science, however, has cause to rejoice, that among the finished papers of Werner, which he bequeathed at his death to the Academy of Freiberg, many well arranged manuscripts have been found, the publication of which fine legacy remains anxiously to be hoped for.

While the science which Werner had imposed on himself as a law continued on his part, his doctrines, so far as they were known, were pirated by others; and (unchecked by the circumstance of Werner continuing by frequent changes and improvements to separate still further his opinions from theirs,) we have seen ourselves inundated with works relative to his theory, the authors of which did not follow the ideas of their preceptor, however numerous and enlarged they might be, but permitted themselves to indulge in speculations of their own with the most unrestrained freedom; so that along with what is useful of Werner's, we possess much of what is foreign to him; and as none of these authors have followed Werner's doctrines in their entire and original purity, none of them possess great value, nor bear the absolute marks of his authority; while, on the contrary, he has opposed the opinions contained in many of them by strong and decided arguments.

In England and Italy, where, previous to the time of Werner, mineralogical researches had been less ardently prosecuted than in Germany, the new doctrines very soon found advocates. Kirwan adopted his method, as well as many other proselytes from the established system. Hawkins, Mitchell, and Weaver, formed part of the new school, and the latter published a meritorious translation of his work upon the external characters of minerals; and lastly, Prof. Jameson of Edinburgh, received his education at Freiberg.

On the side of Italy, Napione extended the doctrines of his master; and in Denmark, the labours of Wad and Esmark procured him approbation and followers.

Brochant came from France to receive instructions from Werner, and returned loaded with knowledge to his country; and while he attained the praise of founding a new school, had nearly received the punishment of exile from his native land.

After Brochant, other advocates of the

* Among these may be classed the labours of Veltheim, Heinitzen, and others; viz. Veltheim's essay, with remarks on the old and new nomenclature of minerals, Helmstadt, 1793, a work deficient in argument; next comes the attack which Mr. Chenevix hazarded against his preceptor, and which does not possess much merit, published in the Annales de Chimie, 1808, tom. 65. p. 11. 113 et 225. The reply to this is contained in a letter from D'Aubuisson to Berthollet, Annales de Chimie, 1809, tom. 69. p. 155 et 228; also in Thomson's observations in answer to M. Chenevix's attack upon Werner's mineralogical method, Annals of Philosophy, vol. i. p. 245. Still less conclusive are the objections of the deceased Estner, entitled, "Unbiassed Thoughts respecting Werner's Improvements in Mineralogy," Vienna, 1790. Compare these with what Karsten has said on the opposite side, entitled, "Upon Werner's Improvements in Mineralogy, occasioned by the Abbe Estner's unbiassed Opinions," Berlin, 1793.

school of Werner arose in France; but their services to the cause will not here detain us, with the exception of D'Aubuisson, who was the first who communicated to the public a just account of several of Werner's doctrines.

In order to be as concise as possible relative to the progress of the Wernerian doctrines in other foreign countries, I shall only relate that in Spain and America they made progress in consequence of the assertions of Herrgen and Del Rio; and that in Portugal, the disciples of this school were headed by Andrada, and the system extensively published and adopted.

Hitherto, in speaking of Werner, we have only noticed his labours in geognosy and oryctognosy, the sciences in which he was destined to render himself immortal, and have spoken of his opinions on these subjects, through which, and his researches relative to the structure of the globe, he so anxiously endeavoured to direct the attention of his followers to the different branches of the science of mineralogy.

The most remarkable incident, however, in the later years of Werner, was his journey to Paris in 1802, occasioned by his zeal in the cause of science, and the wish to confer with the naturalists of the French capital most devoted to his cause. This modest and fine feeling, learned man, although not insensible to the value of external honours, found himself on this occasion overwhelmed with multiplied proofs of the most flattering distinction, inspired by the disinterested knowledge of his worth.*

The cabinet which Werner left behind him,† (the result of a life spent in the laudable pursuits attending the formation of this collection, and the sacrifices which had attended its formation, afford convincing proofs of his earnest exertions in the cause of science) has a double value, derived in the first instance from the great merit of the individual who made the collection, and in the second, from the scientific knowledge displayed in the arrangement of the whole. This valuable collection is now in the possession of the Academy of Freiberg, to whom Werner left it in the most disinterested manner.‡

Werner belonged to most of the learned societies both of his own and of foreign countries. Our Royal Academy of Sciences possessed him as a member since the year 1808. A society founded in Edinburgh assumed his name as an honourable distinction,§ and not long before his death he was constituted president of a society founded in his native country for the encouragement of that science, which lay under such obligations to him.‖

Thus lived Werner, and thus he laboured: his sacrifices on account of science made him renounce the happiness of becoming a husband, and a father, although from his amiable disposition, his cheerful and serene temper, he seemed particularly formed for the pure enjoyments of domestic life. Surrounded by a numerous circle of his friends and scholars, previous to his approaching dissolution, he freely communicated the whole of his knowledge, and intimately and confidentially laid open his whole mind. Steadily true to the fulfilment of his duties, he was seen at the extremity of old age possessed of continued youthful vigour, full of the clearest views and the brightest conceptions.

The estimable king of Saxony, the friend and patron of merit in whatever situation

* Werner was freely admitted every where at Paris, and courted wherever his mineralogical knowledge could be appreciated. It is related that in the laboratory of the School of the Mines, when Descotils was occupied in an elaborate analysis of some specimens of iron ore, he excited astonishment by determining their standard and chemical constitution by a cursory examination of their external characters, in surprising correspondence with the latest analyses of them by the chemist.

† The collection is divided into six parts; viz. precious stones, oryctognosy, a collection of show, one of petrifactions, and one illustrative of the external characters of minerals. The collection of precious stones is one of surprising value and rarity. We have had only a very imperfect account of these collections, but it is to be hoped that we shall soon be put in possession of an ample description of them by some experienced individual.

‡ An offer of 50,000 dollars was made from England for 100,000 of these specimens, but the patriotic proprietor left them for 40,000 dollars to the Academy of Freiberg. Of this sum he sunk 30,000 dollars in an annuity for himself, and an only sister; neither of them had any family; and the remainder of the money received from the Academy for his minerals, he left to it at the death of himself and his sister. He also left his exquisite collection of books and medals to the Academy for 5000 dollars. This contained 6000 Greek and Roman medals.

§ The Wernerian Natural History Society. The seal of this society has engraved upon it a likeness of Werner.

‖ The Mineralogical Society established at Dresden in the course of the winter of 1816 and 1817. The king of Saxony has in every way given encouragement and protection to this society, and has granted it a particular seal and diploma.

it may be found, distinguished him as a rare example of worth.*

Posterity will form a just and true conception of his high worth, and mankind will experience a great loss in his death. Werner did not exclusively belong to Saxony; he was the benefactor of the world at large.

List of Werner's Writings.

Werner published at Leipzig, in 1774, An Essay on the External Characters of Minerals. This work was translated into French, and published at Paris, in 1790, by the translator of the Memoires de Chimie de Scheele (Mlbe. Picardet).

In 1780, he published at Leipzig, A Translation of Cronstedt's Essay on Mineralogy, from the Swedish, with Notes, and An Account of the External Characters of Minerals.

In 1791 and 1792, he published A Full and Systematic Catalogue of the Cabinet of Mr. R. E. Pabst, of Ohain, which he drew up, and edited in two volumes. This is, to appearance, the description of the cabinet of a private individual, but its contents prove that Werner took this opportunity to describe how a collection ought to be arranged and described. Pabst, of Ohain, was an amateur naturalist, who, from holding an official situation under the Saxon government, possessed opportunities of collecting the rarest and most curious mineral specimens. After his death, his heirs, in 1786, wished to give this collection a permanent value, and proposed that Werner should undertake its arrangement and description. In completing this work, Werner followed the arrangement in use in describing a cabinet of natural history; and as he spared no pains in giving an elaborate account of the collection, he composed a work calculated to be of the utmost service to science. The Journal des Mines, vol. ii. chap. 91. p. 73. gives a copious summary of this work.

* Werner received a particular proof of this distinction in being decorated with the Grand Cross of the Royal Saxon Order of Merit. His birth has of late also been celebrated in public; and we are allowed to hope that through the exertions of the Prussian Chevalier Gerard, we shall possess, in a well executed bust of Werner, by Posch of Berlin, a monument of him in a durable shape. In order to form a calculation of what may be the price of this bust, which will be sold for prime cost, the number of those who wish to be possessed of a cast is anxiously waited for, and it is hoped that the admirers of Werner will consider this invitation as opportune. The bust will be cast at the foundry of Gleiwig, in Silesia.

At Dresden, 1787, he published A Short Classification and Description of Mountains.

At Freiberg, in 1791, he published The New Theory of the Formation of Veins, with Remarks on the Formation of Mountains, particularly those in the Neighbourhood of Freiberg. Translated into French, with notes, by D'Aubuisson. Paris, 1802.

In the Miner's Journal, he published An Essay on the Basaltic Formations of Scheibenberger Hill, together with the controversial Correspondence with Mr. Voight on this Subject. A History of the Characters and a Chemical Investigation of Apatite. Vorkommendes Basaltes auf Kupper, vorzugtich hoher berge. Remarks on Evermain's Description of a Basaltic Mountain, called King Arthur's Seat, near Edinburgh; and its close Resemblance to Scheibenberger Hill. Notes upon a Letter of Widenmans, relative to some Hungarian Fossils. Remarks on a Letter of the Chevalier Napione, relative to the Tuberg Iron Mountain. Description of the External Character of Prehnite, with some Observations upon the Name which it has received, and additional Remarks upon the System of naming Objects in Natural History from Individuals. Description of the External Characters of Kyanite. Description of the External Characters of Olivin, Chrysolite, Beryl, and Chrysoberyl, with some additional Remarks on the Gradations of the First. Remarks on the Traps of Sweden, with some Observations on the Origin and Application of this Term, and what may probably be its future Fate, and a short Attempt to determine the precise Species of Mountains to which it may in future be applied.

In Hoepfner's Helvetic Magazine of Natural History, he published An Attempt to explain the Origin of Volcanoes, from the Inflammation of large Beds of Coal, and the Connexion of this Circumstance with the Formation of Basalt.

In Von Crell's Chemical Annals, On the Buzzen-Wacken of Joachimstal. 1789. Band 1, 8, 131.

In the Magazine of Medicine and Natural History, A Description of a new Ore of Silver (Arsenical Silver). A Letter from Leslie, relative to a singular Specimen of Crystallized Gypsum found in an old Fortification.

FROM THE NEW YORK STATESMAN.

Salina, July, 1820.

I have returned to this place to look at the great manufactories of salt, which are

conducted on a very extensive scale. The salt is not only better, but cheaper than any in the United States; its superiority in these essential respects, arises from the strength of the water, the cheapness of fuel, the facility of water conveyance, and improved skill in operation. It is supposed that five millions bushels of salt are consumed annually in the United States, of which three millions are imported, and two made at home; and half a million is manufactured at this place.

The salt springs are situate in a marsh, and by digging a pit any where in it, salt water is found. The brine is forced up by hand pumps and hydraulic machines, and conveyed by leaders to the chaldrons. One man can attend a block of ten kettles. The process of manufacturing is simple. The water is exposed to a hot fire, and when it is sufficiently boiled down, the salt is taken out by a large ladle, and put into a basket, from whence the water exudes into the kettle. The ladle is kept during the whole process in the chaldron, and it is said collects all the feculent matter.

The salt is of three kinds; common, rectified, and basket or table—and salt is made at Montezuma by solar evaporation. Fifty-six gallons of water make a bushel of salt. It is said that it takes 100 gallons at the great Kenhawa river, and 300 at the Conemaugh works, near Pittsburgh. Wood can be procured at 62 cents a cord, and two cords will supply a block of chaldrons for a day.

The common salt is very excellent, the rectified extraordinarily so. The best kind of the latter is put up in baskets of 3 lbs. which cost each 12½ cents.

It is supposed that the salt springs originate from subterranean rivers running over mines or beds of fossil salt, and that as Salina is elevated 100 feet above the Oswego falls, which are composed of sand stone, that the mineral can be found at that depth. Many phenomena all over this country, demonstrate the former presence of the ocean; and it is supposed that a line of country considerably above the Cayuga marshes, and the Salina plains, has been a sea shore. On the recession of the ocean, those great hollows must have retained vast quantities of salt water, which would be converted into salt by solar evaporation, or subterranean heat. But it is evident that this theory is not commensurate with all the facts in the case. Salt springs are found as far east as forty miles, and all over this western region.

In 1806 and 1819, years of great drought, the water was very weak. On what principle can we account for this extraordinary fact? There never has been the least failure of water.

I saw on the salt marsh, the *samphire* of the sea coast. Tournefort made the same observations in his voyage to the Levant. "There are," said he, "some small risings of fossil salt in Georgia. This salt, which crystallized in bottoms where rain water stagnates, mixes with the moisture of the earth, and causes it to produce such plants as love the sea shore; such as *salt wert* and *limonium*. I observed the same thing upon the mountain of Cardonna, situate on the frontiers of Catalonia and Arragon, which is nothing but a prodigious mass of salt."

The country about the salt works is said to be unhealthy. The same evil has been noticed in other places. The spots in Greece where the *malaria* is most noxious, are salt works and rice grounds.

I have no doubt but salt can be procured at Salina for 18 cents a bushel, including the duty of 12½ cents. It can be transported to Albany for 6 or 7 cents more when the canal is finished. The duty on imported salt is 20 cents per bushel. The average price of salt at New York, is from 40 to 50 cents per bushel. Whether the foreign duty is continued or not, the salt of Salina can always be sold cheaper at the head of the sloop navigation of the Hudson, than foreign salt. Every individual in the United States consumes at the rate of half a bushel of salt directly or indirectly. Supposing the consumption in the aggregate to be 5,000,000 of bushels, and the population 10,000,000, then that portion of inhabitants which is comprehended in the supply from Salina, will not have to pay more than from 12½ to 25 cents for the annual consumption of that article.

I conceive the salt manufacture of Salina as the most important establishment in the United States. It renders the nation so far independent of foreign aid: millions of bushels can be made. Without the canals its usefulness would be very circumscribed; but now the facilities of inland navigation enable the conveyance of this indispensable mineral to the remotest regions of the west, and to the shores of the Atlantic ocean.

From the Charleston Courier.

ELECTRICAL EQUILIBRIUM.

To the Friends of Science.

The subscriber is induced to add to the

remarks made in his Essay on the Yellow Fever of 1817, and in those published in 1819, with regard to a *deficient electricity in the atmosphere*, constituting *one among the essential causes*, which must exist before the *gaseous poison* is capable of exerting its full influence in generating, and afterwards supporting, YELLOW FEVER INFECTION—the following observations, the result of four summer seasons, which have afforded still further proofs in confirmation of the doctrine advanced and supported in those essays, and have led to the advancement of the following propositions and laws:

Proposition 1*st.*—I consider the ELECTRIC FLUID, emphatically termed the SOUL OF THE WORLD! as the *generic source* of the great class of *imponderable bodies*, light, heat (*caloric*) and magnetism. Neither of these admit of any thing like a critical examination of their gravities, as they are not known to affect the most delicate balance. They are, however, known to exist from certain phenomena peculiar to them, and to be subject to certain laws, productive of such phenomena, as tend to characterize and distinguish their general and specific properties.

Prop. 2*d.*—I consider the electric fluid to be the parent source of *oxygen*;* or, in other words, the electric fluid is that principle in nature which *generates*, and after, *modifies*, light, heat and magnetism, among the *imponderable bodies;* and among those that are *ponderable*, oxygen, together with certain of the *respirable gases.*

Prop. 3*d.*—I consider the electric fluid to be governed by the following laws, which may be considered as so many established laws of nature: the sun being the centre of its emanation, or of its action, in the solar system, and always *positive.*

Law 1.—An *electrical equilibrium* exists in all those sections of the globe, where there is no more than the *natural and proper quantity of electricity*, in the atmosphere, and on the face of the earth; and its existence is proved, by the tranquil and healthy state of all nature.

Law 2.—There can be no *electrical equilibrium* in any section of the globe, or in those places where the fluid exists either in excessive or deficient quantities in the atmosphere, nor while the excess or deficiency remains.

Law 3.—The electric fluid is in *excess* when any one part of the globe has acquired more than its natural or proper quantity; and the support of an *equilibrium* being universally a *fundamental law of nature*, the effort to restore an *equilibrium* produces the phenomena of "thunder, lightnings, earthquakes and whirlwinds."†—While the effect of this excess of electricity in the atmosphere, and on the animal economy, is evidenced by an inflammatory constitution of the atmosphere; and in the animal economy, the blood is *superoxygenized;* as is evidenced by the type of the prevailing diseases, which are generally inflammatory, and most commonly epidemic, such as *Catarrhus Epidemica*, &c.‡ And, it necessarily follows, that when this inflammatory constitution of the atmosphere is suddenly changed, by a cotemporaneous and superabundant fall of rain, as happened in the year 1819, this excessive moisture, diluting the excess of electricity, a *deficiency* takes place, and the *equilibrium* not being restored, inflammatory diseases degenerate very rapidly into *Typhus.* This fact, I believe, can be substantiated by every observing physician in the city.

Law 4.—The electric fluid is *deficient* whenever any section of the globe, or any part of matter, has less than the natural or proper quantity diffused through the atmosphere, and over such part of matter, as happened in the year 1817.—Particularly noticed in the Essay on Yellow Fever, page 101.

REMARKS.

The *electric equilibrium* may be impaired by one or many causes, and the deficiency is evidenced in like manner. 1st. Excessive rain, as in 1819. 2d. Heat above the summer temperature, accompanied with excessive rain. 3d. Particular winds impair it. In our city, northeast, east, and southeast winds, are found injurious to the fluid. While, on the contrary, its activity is awakened by those from the north, northwest, and west. And its activity is impaired, 4th, by the plentiful evolution of

* Inquiries into the Principles and Properties of the Electric Fluid, pages 193, 212, &c.

† Brydone's Tour through Sicily and Malta, vol. ii. page 98.

‡ An ingenious and learned tourist says "Consumption is produced by too much oxygen in the blood."

N. B.—It may be worthy of remark here, that on the 7th of the present month, an *electrical deficiency* began to evidence itself in our city, which was inundated on the 9th and 10th. Five days afterwards, the *Yellow Fever* was announced; on the 19th, the wind began to change, and by the 20th it blew fresh from the north; the activity of the fluid awoke up, and the *Yellow Fever* took a hasty leave, to make room for an *Epidemic Catarrh.* This additional fact cannot be denied by any one, for it must be obvious to all.

certain noxious and deleterious *gases*, the effect of the putrefaction of dead bodies, either animal or vegetable, or of both combined. 5th. Locally, it is rendered deficient in cities and towns, or particular sections thereof, from peculiar and locally existing causes; which have been already sufficiently noticed by most medical writers. And 6th. In camps, jails, hospitals and ships, from similar causes.

A deficient electricity is known to exist, whenever extraordinary exertions are obliged to be made, in order to procure fluid from a good electrical apparatus.—When the proper quantity is diffused through the atmosphere, the fluid is collected readily, and with no more than common exertion.

During the existence of an *electrical equilibrium*, the atmosphere retains its due degree of elasticity and vitality; being neither too rare nor too dense for the healthy support of nature. This fact is established by the health of our city during the summer of 1818.

Prop. 4th.—It is not possible, according to the foregoing laws, and during the existence of an *electrical equilibrium*, for disease, as an epidemic, to take place. (I mean only those diseases that depend on atmospherical agency for their generation and extension, and *not contagious diseases.*) *Because*, the causes which generate and support epidemic diseases, depend altogether on an excess or deficiency of the electric fluid in the atmosphere, before they are capable of exerting their deleterious influence, first on the atmosphere, and then on the animal economy, as observed *Law* 3. And *because*, 2d, the electric fluid *in equilibrio*, that is, in its proper quantity, purifies the atmospherical air; affording the proper quantities of *oxygen*, and dilutes or dissipates the *noxious gases*, which would otherwise give rise to that *infectious state of the atmosphere*, which has been long known to favour the generation and to support the extension of *Epidemic Yellow Fever* in all the tropical climates; and these observations go far to the establishment of the following:

Law 5.—"As long as an *electrical equilibrium* is supported in the atmosphere, the remote causes of fever, though existing, are in consequence of this *equilibrium*, incapable of exciting disease of higher grades than *simple synocha*, a mild intermittent, remittent, &c."*

J. L. E. W. Shecut.

* Medical and Philosophical Essays, p. 215.

Hussein, captain pasha, had a Jew physician who called in one day to relieve him from an aching tooth; the clumsy fellow unfortunately drew the wrong one, but as the agony of extraction drowned the pain for a time, he got away undetected; the pain soon returned, and a few days after, Hussein meeting the man on the Bosphorus, stopped him and had every tooth in his head drawn.

Peach Trees.—We have been informed that by planting onions around peach trees, they may be effectually preserved from the ravages of destructive insects.

Poetry.

HYMN.

FROM MILLMAN'S FALL OF JERUSALEM.

Even thus amid thy pride and luxury,
Oh Earth! shall that last coming burst on thee,
That secret coming of the Son of Man.
When all the cherub-thronging clouds shall shine,
Irradiate with his bright advancing sign:
When that great Husbandman shall wave his fan,
Sweeping, like chaff, thy wealth and pomp away:
Still to the noontide of that nightless day,
Shalt thou thy wonted dissolute course maintain.
Along the busy mart and crowded street,
The buyer and the seller still shall meet,
And marriage feasts begin their jocund strain:
Still to the pouring out the cup of wo;
Till Earth, a drunkard, reeling to and fro,
And mountains molten by his burning feet,
And Heaven his presence own, all red with furnace heat.
The hundred gated cities then,
The towers and temples nam'd of men
Eternal, and the thrones of kings;
The gilded summer palaces,
The courtly bowers of love and ease,
Where still the bird of pleasure sings;
Ask ye the destiny of them?
Go gaze on fallen Jerusalem!
Yea, mightier names are in the fatal roll,
'Gainst earth and heaven God's standard is unfurl'd,
The skies are shrivelled like a burning scroll,
And the vast common doom ensepulchres the world.
Oh! who shall then survive?
Oh! who shall stand and live?
When all that hath been, is no more:
When for the round earth hung in air,
With all its constellations fair
In the sky's azure canopy;
When for the breathing earth, and sparkling sea,
Is but a fiery deluge without shore,
Heaving along the abyss profound and dark,
A fiery deluge, and without an ark.
Lord of all power, when thou art there alone
On thy eternal fiery-wheeled throne,
That in its high meridian noon
Needs not the perish'd sun nor moon:

When thou art there in thy presiding state,
Wide sceptred Monarch o'er the realm of doom:
When from the sea depths, from Earth's darkest womb,
The dead of all the ages round thee wait,
And when the tribes of wickedness are strewn
Like forest leaves in the autumn of thine ire:
Faithful and true! thou wilt save thine own!
The saints shall dwell within th' unharming fire,
Each white robe spotless, blooming every palm,
Even safe as we, by this still fountain's side.
So shall the Church, thy bright and mystic bride,
Sit on the stormy gulf a halcyon bird of calm.
Yes, 'mid yon angry and destroying signs,
O'er us the rainbow of thy mercy shines,
We hail, we bless the covenant of its beam,
Almighty to avenge, Almightiest to redeem!

Record.

Boston, October 3.

Yesterday an adjourned meeting on the subject of the proposed tariff, was held at Faneuil Hall—Hon. William Gray, chairman, and William Foster, jun. esq. secretary.

A long and interesting report was read from the respectable committee appointed at a former meeting—which concluded with the following resolves:

Resolved, That we have regarded with pleasure the establishment and success of manufactures among us—and consider their growth, when natural and spontaneous, and not the effect of a system of bounties and protection, as an evidence of general wealth and prosperity.

Resolved, That relying on the ingenuity, enterprise and skill, of our fellow citizens, we believe that all manufactures adapted to our character and circumstances will be introduced and extended, as soon and as far as will promote the public interest, without any further protection than they now receive.

Resolved, That no objection ought ever to be made to any amount of taxes equally apportioned and imposed for the purpose of raising revenues necessary for the support of government—but that taxes imposed on the people for the sole benefit of any one class of men are equally inconsistent with the principles of our constitution and with sound policy.

Resolved, That the supposition that until the proposed tariff or some similar measure be adopted, we are and shall be dependent on foreigners for the means of subsistence and defence, is, in our opinion, altogether fallacious and fanciful, and derogatory to the character of the nation.

Resolved, That high bounties on such domestic manufactures as are principally benefited by that tariff, favour great capitalists, rather than personal industry or the owners of small capitals, and therefore that we do not perceive its tendency to promote national industry.

Resolved, That we are equally incapable of discovering its beneficial effects on agriculture, since the obvious consequence of its adoption would be, that the farmer must give more than he now does for all he buys, and receive less for all he sells.

Resolved, That the imposition of duties, which are enormous, and deemed by a large portion of the people to be unequal and unjust, is dangerous, as it encourages the practice of smuggling.

Resolved, That in our opinion, the proposed tariff, and the principles on which it is avowedly founded would, if adopted, have a tendency, however different may be the motives of those who recommend them, to diminish the industry, impede the prosperity, and corrupt the morals of the people.

James T. Austin, esq. and the Hon. Daniel Webster, addressed their fellow citizens in favour of the report and resolves, in speeches which were distinguished for closeness of argument, variety of illustration, and abundance of fact.

The report was then accepted, and the resolves recommended by the committee unanimously passed.

A vote of thanks to the Hon. Mr. Otis, of the Senate, and to those members from this state, in the House of Representatives of the United States, who opposed the new tariff, was unanimously agreed to.

It appears from a Canadian paper, that considerable alarm prevails in that province from an apprehension that parliament may so alter the duties on lumber as to admit the competition of the north of Europe.

It is said in an eastern gazette, that the line to be run by the commissioners between the British and American possessions, will vary considerably from the common opinion of the boundary, and that "the Americans will have a large accession of territory between the St. Croix and the St. Lawrence."

Alexander M'Nair has been chosen the first governor of Missouri. The number of votes given in, was nearly ten thousand.

The votes in Indiana at the recent election for member of Congress, were between sixteen and twenty thousand.

The United States Circuit Court, at its late session at Columbus, Ohio, directed an attachment to issue against Ralph Osborn, auditor, and John L. Harper, for disregarding the injunction issued last September, forbidding the collection of the tax imposed by the state. The state law is considered a nullity.

In reply to a demand of the Spanish government that the sovereign pontiff should authorize the bishops of Spain to secularize the ecclesiastics belonging to the religious order, his holiness replied that it was contrary to the discipline of the church, and would only grant that they may be placed in the class of curates during five years, after which time they should return to their convents.

Red River Copper Mines.—We learn from Alexandria, Louisiana, that a company under the direction of a distinguished retired officer of the United States army, has been formed, for opening and working copper mines on the Red River, a few miles beyond the boundary of the United States. [*Union.*

A report on the finances of the city of New Orleans, estimates the expenditures of the current year at $195,597, and the revenue at $167,130. The sources of revenue are, rents $40,000; tavern and boarding house licenses $20,000; wharfage $23,245; real estate and slaves $16,000; notes for lots sold $42,727; duty on prisoners $1,500.

Among the expenditures, are city watch $17,760; salary of mayor $4,000; clerk and other officers $6,500; six police officers $6,000; two overseers of chained negroes $720 each; maintenance of *chained negroes* $2,458; New Orleans Library $27.50; *box at the theatre for the mayor* $40; lighting the city $9,310; cleaning $5,997; printing $1,237, &c.

Copy of a Letter received from the House of the American Consul, at Genoa, dated 15th August, 1820.

Ere this reaches you, you will, no doubt, have received the official decree of the French government, for countervailing the act of Congress of 15th May last, imposing a new tonnage duty, &c. &c. As this decree has been evidently enforced by a spirit of retaliation, if not resentment, we are rather apprehensive here that measures thus conflicting may tend to aggravate more than conciliate, and remove the causes which occasioned them. The system of restriction having originated with France, we might have reasonably expected a relaxation on her part, but instead of which we find her rigidly persevering; and as both nations appear to be reciprocally tenacious of their rights in this particular, it would seem that neither party are over anxious to abandon their positions, however opportune the moment for amicable adjustment may be. During the continuance of this state of things, the enormous tonnage duty imposed on vessels of both nations, must necessarily prohibit any further direct intercourse between them, which will naturally suggest the expediency of resorting to indirect channels for the attainment of this most lucrative and highly important branch of commerce. Lest you, like a great portion of the merchants of the United States, should not have made yourself acquainted with the extensive importance of this great commercial emporium, we shall here attempt to point out a few of its many peculiar resources, preparatory to our recommending it as the most eligible position from whence this general interchange of commodities may be effected. Genoa, late the capital of the Ligurian republic, (but now attached to the dominions of his Sardinian Majesty) has ever been celebrated for its beautiful situation, and magnificent buildings, as well as for the richest and most commercial city in the Mediterranean. It possesses a very safe and commodious harbour, with depth of water sufficient for the largest ships of the line. Its situation being in the centre of the Mediterranean, and directly in the vicinity of the south of France, renders it not only the most accessible port to Marseilles, for the supply of that rich section of country, and its many manufactories, but affords an easy communication with the Levant, Adriatic, Italian and Spanish ports, with all of which it carries on a very extensive and advantageous traffic. In addition to the immense consumption of the state and dominions of his Sardinian Majesty, which are now said to contain five millions of souls, it supplies all the interior of Lombardy, Switzerland, and their neighbouring countries with the desired commodities and luxuries of life. Hence you may conceive the quantities of American and colonial productions imported here must be immense. The articles of tobacco, cotton, codfish, indigo and hides, are much consumed here, and most generally meet with quick and profitable sales. Colonials of every description always demanded. The exports are of great variety and immense extent, for besides the Levant goods received here in remittance, the produce and manufacture of the country form very important branches of our trade. The principal articles are sweet olive oil and soap, the qualities of which are much superior and cheaper than at Leghorn or Marseilles. Fruits, fresh, dried, and preserved, in great abundance. Pickles, of capers, olives, and anchovies. Silks, damasks, satins and velvets, the most esteemed in Europe. Paper of every quality and description. Rags, marbles, wrought and unwrought marble and chimney pieces, statues and alabaster ornaments, with a great variety of other articles, well adapted for the American and West India markets. The markets here offer, at all times, greater inducements than those of Leghorn and Marseilles, as in consequence of the importations hence, direct from America, being less frequent than at those ports. Orders are frequently sent from this for the purchase of entire cargoes either for speculation, or for the supply of the interior, which must clearly prove the advantages that would result from shipments direct from the United States.

Exchanges with all the capital cities in Europe, and bank business, is another very considerable branch of our commerce; failures are very rare, and our bankers are of such solidity, as to make their correspondence universally courted. In short, possessing a free port, where we can land and sell all kind of goods free of duty, with the benefit of transit, or free export for the same, as well as for the general productions and manufactures of the country, Genoa must, from her many peculiar and very superior advantages, outrival all her neighbouring ports, and become the great emporium of the Mediterranean.

By the late acquisition of all the Genoese dominions, his Sardinian Majesty has become a very considerable potentate. His army of regulars may be estimated at not less than 80,000 men, all fine disciplined troops. His navy, which he appears very ambitious to increase, consists now of two 64's, two fine frigates, six corvettes, 15 row gallies, and one 74 on the stocks.

[*Nat. Adv.*

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

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Miscellany.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

I have read, Sir, in last week's paper, a letter from a correspondent of yours upon the disadvantages of young women whose support depends upon their own exertions. I was pleased to see a public notice of the subject, but must observe that the writer has omitted to state a very material disadvantage attending the situation of which she speaks—I mean the kind of necessity which it imposes upon the young woman of accepting an offer of marriage that may remove her from it, even when it is in many respects undesirable. It must require a more than ordinary firmness of mind in a young woman, to give all the weight they deserve, to objections against the temper and character of the man who offers her a release from the anxious care of providing for the morrow. Feeling herself quite unqualified for the business of money making, she is too apt to shrink from a weight that would grow lighter and lighter, to take up a burden which may in time become too heavy to be borne.

I have been particularly interested in this matter, from the fate of an early acquaintance and dear friend of mine. Sarah Thomson had lived from her childhood to her sixteenth year, with but little to disturb her tranquillity, and nothing of sufficient evil to blight the roses that brightened on her happy face. She was the very life of every company of her friends, and was not less loved for the kindness of her heart, than respected for the good sense of her opinions and admired for the vivacity and brilliancy of her conversation. Some philosophers say, that our kindness and pity for others arises from the pain we imagine that we would feel if we were in their situation; but I cannot but think these good qualities are originally implanted in us by our Almighty Father, and are entirely independent of all thought about ourselves: at least I never could reconcile this opinion with the character of Sarah. She had felt as little unhappiness as almost any one, and yet was most sensible to all the sorrows and pains of others. When any of her friends were ill, or in any other trouble, there was no one so much alive to all they suffered as she was, and there was no one who could give better advice in any difficult emergency. She was particularly trusted by her friends, because she never on any provocation either to herself or to them, suffered anger to make her forget the justice due the opposing party; and I may say for myself, that I often felt my vexation under an affront immediately cooled, as soon as I thought of the manner in which Sarah Thomson would speak of it. She sat by my bedside during a severe sickness, with a watchful patience that seemed quite at variance with her lively and cheerful disposition, and even when all conversation in the room was forbidden, and I began to be fearful that confinement would wear her out, she persisted in remaining with me, and I always felt relieved during the greatest suffering, when I looked upon the angelic affection and heavenly goodness in her face. You will think me extravagant, but there was about her as much as I ever imagined of that lovely and holy beauty that characterizes the spirits of heaven, and I cannot, even at the distance of forty years, dwell thus upon the merit of this superior woman, without the most bitter distress at the thought of the little reward which it met with in this world. But why should I weep for her; she is now in the presence of her God, "where the wicked cease from troubling and the weary are at rest;" and I hope it is not impiety in me to add, that the hope of again meeting with her, makes heaven itself appear more desirable to me!

When she was about sixteen years old, her father died, and left but little to his family, which consisted of his wife, Sarah, a boy of fifteen, and two children quite young. Mrs. Thomson found it necessary to make an immediate change in her way

of living, and having taken another house, she purchased a small stock of goods by the advice of her friends, and endeavoured by rigid economy and constant industry to defray the expenses of her family. The boy was put as an apprentice to a merchant, and Sarah and her mother were generally occupied with needlework, which was sold in the shop. Mrs. Thomson never recovered the cheerfulness of her spirits; but her daughter's unwearied attention would have restored the tranquillity of her mind, had it not been distracted by the knowledge that her little capital was every year diminishing. Although Sarah was graver than she had formerly been, it was not till after more than a year of such constant application that I thought her eye was less bright, and the elasticity of her mind impaired. Her mother felt no disposition to keep up former acquaintances, and her time was so much engaged that she had no leisure for reading, which had formerly been her principal employment. Such a deprivation must have been very sickening and painful, but she never suffered despondency to creep upon her, and seemed to find in her endeavours to give comfort and hope to her mother, a holy delight that sustained her amidst all that she had to suffer. About four years after her husband's death, Mrs. Thomson began rapidly to decline; anxiety for the fate of her children made her sickness a season of great sorrow, and in less than a year she sunk into the grave. Sarah's health was considerably affected by her constant attendance on her mother, and I feared that she would sink under the load of affliction. But the two younger children were still dependent upon her, and that seemed to call forth her fortitude. In the settlement of her mother's affairs, she found the stock of goods on hand just sufficient to pay the debts that were owing, and as it was improbable that the shop would be more profitable than it had formerly been, she chose the occupation of a teacher, and for a year had the care of a small school, the revenue arising from which was hardly sufficient to support the family. At the end of that time she married a merchant, who had in her mother's lifetime offered her his hand, and had been rejected, not only I believe from an unwillingness to part with her parent, but from a want of attachment to him. And I have no doubt, though she never told me so, that he would still have been refused, could she have found any comfortable means of supporting herself and the young children. Scarcely three years had passed away, when her husband, who had engaged his whole fortune in a speculating scheme, was almost ruined by its failure. He had never been deserving of such a treasure; but after he began to engage in mercantile adventures that were little better than gambling, his temper became morose and violent, and his wife was treated with rudeness and insult that was not always restrained by the presence of others. The ingratitude with which her best efforts to please were received, was too much for human nature to bear, and this accomplished, lovely and noble woman, who was qualified to adorn and brighten life, and would have been almost adored by a husband capable of appreciating her worth, fell a victim to the unkindness of one who was every way her inferior, and was, even in his best days, utterly unworthy of that kind heart and magnanimous spirit.

The effort that I have made to give you this account, has brought many tears into the eyes of an old woman, who has lost too many of her friends and kindred to feel a common loss very acutely, but who can never suffer herself to think of the friend whose affection gladdened her youthful days, without a swelling heart, and a prayer to Infinite Goodness to strengthen her faith in the wisdom of the mysterious ways of Providence.

S. G.

Mr. Yorick.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

Messrs. Editors,

I am a patriot; that is to say, I love my country, and if wealth or influence give me power to confer benefits on my species, my views of the natural order and economy of things would induce me to extend the sphere of my benevolence in succession, 1st, to my own family and connexions, 2dly, to my neighbourhood, 3dly, to my own state, country, &c. But if I could do a service to the whole of mankind, I should be still better pleased; for my patriotism is but the natural offspring of a more noble principle —philanthropy. If I do not possess some portion of this, I cannot conceive that I can justly lay claim to a particle of the other. As for that patriotism which lies in unceasing boast, ascribing to every thing that appertains to "*my country,*" an additional intrinsic value from that circumstance only, this is a patriotism in which I have neither lot nor part; and I should rejoice at the arrival of that period when I might no longer see nor hear the indications of it.

I *rejoice*, indeed, that my lot is cast in a land, where there is yet elbow room for life

and liberty and enterprise; where as yet the "spirit of oppression" has a chain which allows him to go only *certain* lengths; where power and wealth and *learning* have not *yet* consolidated their triple league against the rights, liberties and happiness of the great body of the nation. For this I *rejoice;* and should rejoice yet more, could I believe that this state of things would lead to better; that posterity should see the evil removed, the deficient supplied, and the good perfected. But this I fear is too pleasant a picture, ever to be realized. The clay and the iron mixture are too visible in the actual state of things.

With these (perhaps you may esteem them) *gloomy* views of things, I read in your number for Aug. 26th, the following passage. "It is delightful to observe one nation among so many regulate its conduct in every point upon liberal principles. It will be proved by the brilliant results that the exclusive and jealous maxims of the old European states, which they with great effrontery call 'practical truths,' because they unhappily put them in practice, are deserving of the appellations of 'vain systems' and 'fatal theories,' (terms) so often and so ignorantly applied to the great truths of political economy. The American confederation will have the glory of proving by experience, that the most profound policy is in accordance with moderation and humanity."

In the foregoing sentiments I most cordially concur, except in your ascribing to the American government a liberal policy *in every point;* and in giving them glory for the *discovery* that "the most profound policy is in accordance with moderation and humanity." This is an age of discovery—many important truths are said to be discovered. But to me it appears that in these discoveries there is no cause of boasting, but rather of blushing and humiliation: for the fact seems to be that those truths have not been so much discovered by human wisdom, as *forced* upon the obtuse intellects of the great and the wise of the earth, by the irresistible evidence of long and woful experience. *These* are, at this late date of the world, *beginning* to see, what to honest and simple hearted men was known in every age of the world, that "God is wiser than man." That when he required of his creatures "to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly," he was only requiring what was conducive to individual as well as to universal happiness.

He "makes what happiness we justly call,
Consist not in the good of one, but all."

But what has been the result of all the learned labour, research and discussion for so many centuries. Has not the policy of all nations, however refined, however great and wise in the estimation of themselves or of their neighbours, been in direct opposition to the divine law of love? Have not pride, revenge and bloodthirstiness been elevated to the dignity of virtues? Has not hatred to other nations been fostered as the life blood of patriotism? Have they not lived among each other as beasts of prey, and as if each believed its own prosperity and happiness depended on the destruction of those of all others? If now, though late, the scales are beginning to fall from the eyes of the great and the reputed wise, who have heretofore seen "men as trees," let us "thank God and take courage;" but let us beware of boasting. Truly "pride was not made for man." It is a lamentable truth that in almost every point which affects our interest or our prejudices we dispute the ground inch by inch, till driven from the fastnesses of error by long and unwelcome experience. How many fatal systems and doctrines have been hugged, and, though from their origin to the present day they have been productive of nothing but confusion and misery, are still hugged by the *reputed* wise, as "practical truths." And there is little ground to hope that this blindness will wholly disappear, until both rulers and people become more sincere and simple hearted—as fond of justice and mercy as they are now of wealth and vain glory. How lately has the fact obtained general assent, that "the African is endowed with the same faculties and aptitudes as white men." And how was this *discovery* made? Not by candid and liberal inquiry—but forced upon us by conspicuous and notorious facts. And to this day, even in the face of historical fact,* we are told by those who "delight in war"† that "nothing but *fear* can keep savages in order," because unhappily *such* characters put no other plan in practice. We have graciously conceded, that the negro is a man, because slaves are at length found to be a troublesome, and not a very profitable kind of property; and with the major part of mankind it is no longer a point of *interest* to consider them as beasts. As to our red brethren, as they were not found to be good materials for slaves, we have never I believe thought it necessary to divest *them*

* Vide, the early history of Pennsylvania.
† Witness the history of *Madison Island* and the *Seminole war.*

of their humanity. But as we have a great desire to possess their lands, and as perhaps both the national government and individuals feel some qualms of conscience in regard to the treatment which the poor remains of this *noble* race have received at our hands, many of our writers (exhibiting talents worthy of a better cause) have taken a deal of pains to prove, that the "Indians of North America are a race utterly incapable of receiving either civilization or Christianity." Now if this grand point can be established, or if the public mind can only be kept for half a century more under this delusion, the great object of these writers will be accomplished. No man can conceive himself conscientiously bound to promote an object which he believes to be unattainable. Let the outstretched arm of Christian charity be restrained by the withering doctrine of "impracticability," and in less than the period mentioned, the self styled "faithful" may exultingly set up his Ebenezer, and rejoice that the heathen is driven out, and his place occupied by "those who can praise their Maker." But far different will be the feelings of the true philanthropist. His will be the melancholy task of erecting a monument to a departed people, a mighty nation, a *noble* race—a race who might still have existed and flourished, had the *discovery* been made in time (before avarice had accomplished her greedy purpose), that God "made of one blood *all* the families of the earth;" that even Indians are men, possessing like passions, powers and propensities with others, and operated on in a similar manner by the same causes. Oh! that on behalf of this sinking race, I could extend my voice to the remotest corner of the land of their forefathers; that in this noble enterprise (and a more godlike was never offered to their acceptance), I could enlist all the sympathies of the philanthropist, all the energies of the Christian. That in the experiment of "saving a nation," I could induce the government or the people of these states to appropriate only so much as the cost of building and maintaining *one* great engine of *destruction—one ship of the line.* Could the *saving* of a nation be considered as an object of as much magnitude, and conferring as much glory, as the destruction of lives and property in needless wars, I am satisfied the *discovery* would soon be incontestably established, that "Indians *can* be civilized, and be made partakers of the gospel of Christ." Indeed to every candid and intelligent mind, I conceive these facts must be already amply established. It is not denied that it requires patience and perseverance to break up the habits of a wandering life. This might have been known, *a priori*, without attributing to the native of North America any *inherent* peculiarity of disposition. If any unusual difficulty exists, more than would attach to the reclaiming of other savages from the hunting life, may it not be justly ascribed to our having lost their confidence. Though they have no fine arts, no classical learning, no poets and historians to plead their cause, they are too sagacious not to observe our want of sincerity and good faith. They feel indignant at the wrongs they have suffered; they are sensible of the futility of resistance; and they must perceive that gradually to dispossess them of their little reservations, and drive them from every resting place, is the ultimate object in almost every treaty. Perhaps some lustrums hence (for I can scarcely believe it will extend to a century) we may make some further important *discoveries* respecting our *black* population. We have already discovered that a slave population is a curse instead of a blessing. We could wish that our forefathers, when they took up the important question—"Whether they should cultivate their land by slaves or freemen," had been guided in their deliberations by the simple dictates of justice. The question would have been decided without debate. The soil of our country would never have been cursed by the tears of a *slave.* But our fathers, wise and politic as we, thought "justice and humanity" terms too monkish for a politician. "The prosperity of country," "the public good," those are the considerations which are worthy to absorb all others in the mind of a *statesman.* "Will the importation of slaves conduce to the rapid growth of the colony." That is the question. And they decided in the affirmative. And now, since we are *feelingly* convinced that our fathers were impolitic in being unjust, shall *we* be just? Justice demands, without "if" or "but," that at least the slave whose services have paid all the costs of purchase and maintenance, should be set free; and that all obtained by birth should be free at the age of twenty-one.* But human wisdom says, "It is unsafe to do justice! If emancipation ever becomes universal, it

* I am not about to discuss the extent of the powers of the general or state governments. It is presumed that the power of wiping away this foul stain from our land, lies *somewhere;* and that it will one day be exercised.

must be accomplished very gradually; and the commencement of the work must be deferred until those who hold slaves shall deem it *safe* to restore to them the rights of men."

When is this system to go into operation? How long will its consummation require? What is to become of the freed men as the work progresses? What effect will this system have on those still retained in bondage *acknowledged* to be unjust? These are highly important queries; and if the system be put in practice, *time* will answer them; and perhaps though late, enable posterity by woful experience to *discover* that *in all cases* "honesty is the best policy."

That the black population of this country will one day be freemen; and that they will always constitute not an inconsiderable portion of the whole population of North America, are propositions the truth of which I presume no man can seriously doubt who believes in prophecy, who derives instruction from history, and whose eyes are not blind to the "signs of the times." And it may be of importance to *posterity* whether the resumption of this "inalienable right" be the result of a voluntary act of justice on our part; or the result of desperate conflict.

SPIRIT OF AN AGE AT HAND.

☞ The writer of the foregoing communication will no doubt excuse us for printing it by itself, as it has no connexion with what follows it in his manuscript. The expediency of publishing the remainder is yet to be considered of. Some annotations upon Peters' Letters were accidentally sent with the paper. Will the writer call for them, or shall we guess who he is, and send them to him? Perhaps he would have time and inclination to put them in regular form, and send them to us again?

From Baldwin's London Magazine.

*Memoirs of Richard L. Edgeworth, Esq.**

The first volume contains such part of the memoirs of Mr. Edgeworth as was written by himself, and is of a very different complexion from the second from the pen of his daughter. We see in every page of the former, evidence of that abundance of animal spirits, and healthy activity of body and mind, which often changed their channel of direction in the course of his life, without ever relaxing their innate spring, or losing any of their pristine force of impulse. It is indeed Mr. Edgeworth's boast, corroborated by his daughter's testimony, that he was unchanged by age, or events. He seems to have had a ready and quick feeling for every thing that happened, just as the bulrush has a rapid sympathy with the breeze that passes over it, and raises its head exactly into its old position the instant it is gone by. Mr. Edgeworth began to marry at twenty, and continued the practice till late in life. In fact, matrimony and mechanics seem to have monopolized his fidelity: with dancing he was desperately enamoured at first, but his taste soon tired of it, though he is careful to assure us his legs never did. Gambling and dissipated companions possessed him for a time, but neither sullied his mind, nor permanently influenced his habits. Telegraphs and one-wheeled chaises, however, kept stronger hold of him: he was the first to send poetry across the channel by a chain of signals; and he contrived for himself a carriage in which his "*legs were warned to lift themselves up*," to escape being broken by posts, and in which he sat "*pretty safe* from wet," his feet being "secured by leathers which folded up like the sides of bellows."

One of his exploits in this commodious vehicle he records in a tone of exultation with which we entirely sympathize:—

"On my road to Birmingham I passed through Long-Compton, in Warwickshire, on a Sunday. The people were returning from church, and numbers stopped to gaze at me. There is or was a shallow ford near the town, over which there was a very narrow bridge for horse and foot passengers, but not sufficiently wide for wagons or chaises. Towards this bridge I drove. The people, not perceiving the structure of my one-wheeled vehicle, called to me with great eagerness, to warn me that the bridge was too narrow for carriages. I had an excellent horse, which went so fast as to give but little time for examination. The louder they called, the faster I drove, and when I had passed the bridge, they shouted after me with surprise. I got on to Shipton upon Stour; but, before I had dined there, I found that my fame had overtaken me. My carriage was put into a coach house, so that those who came from Long-Compton, not seeing it, did not recognise me; I therefore had an opportunity of hearing all the exaggerations and

* Memoirs of the late R. L. Edgeworth, esq. begun by himself, and finished by his daughter, Maria Edgeworth. 2 vols. London, 1820.

strange conjectures, which were made by those who related my passage over the narrow bridge. There were posts on the bridge, to prevent, as I suppose, more than one horseman from passing at once. Some of the spectators asserted, that my carriage had gone over these posts; others said that it had not *wheels*, which was indeed literally true; but they meant to say that it was without any wheel. Some were sure that no carriage ever went so fast; and all agreed, that at the end of the bridge, where the floods had laid the roads for some way under water, my carriage swam on the surface of the water."

Mr. Edgeworth was also, about the commencement of his career in mechanics, lucky enough to contrive a wheel which "should carry on a man *as fast as he could possibly walk*," that is to say, provided he "*plied his legs with energy.*" On the first experiment being made, it answered its purpose so well as to give the lad within scarcely time "*to jump from his rolling prison before it reached the chalk-pit;* but the wheel went on with such velocity as to outstrip its pursuers, and rolling over the edge of the precipice it was dashed to pieces."

To recompense himself for this misfortune he invented "*a sailing carriage.*"

"The carriage was light, steady, and ran with amazing velocity. One day when I was preparing for a sail in it, with my friend and schoolfellow, Mr. William Foster, my wheel-boat escaped from its moorings, just as we were going to step on board. With the utmost difficulty I overtook it, and as I saw three or four stage coaches on the road, and feared that this sailing chariot might frighten their horses, I, at the hazard of my life, got into my carriage while it was under full sail, and then, at a favourable part of the road, I used the means I had of guiding it easily out of the way. But the sense of the mischief which must have ensued, if I had not succeeded in getting into the machine at the proper place, and stopping it at the right moment, was so strong, as to deter me from trying any more experiments on this carriage in such a dangerous place. Such should never be attempted except on a large common, *at a distance from a high road.* It may not however be amiss to suggest, that upon a long extent of iron railway, in an open country, carriages properly constructed might make profitable voyages from time to time with sails instead of horses; for though a constant or regular intercourse could not be thus carried on, yet goods of a certain sort, that are saleable at any time, might be stored till wind and weather were favourable."

One more of Mr. Edgeworth's ingenious inventions is all we can allow to this subject:—he offered for a wager to produce a *wooden horse that should carry him safely over the highest wall in the country!*

"It struck me, that, if a machine were made with eight legs, four only of which should stand upon the ground at one time; if the remaining four were raised up into the body of the machine, and if this body were divided into two parts, sliding, or rather rolling on cylinders, one of the parts, and the legs belonging to it, might in two efforts be projected over the wall by a person in the machine; and the legs belonging to this part might be let down to the ground, and then the other half of the machine might have its legs drawn up, and be projected over the wall, and so on alternately. This idea by degrees developed itself in my mind, so as to make me perceive, that as one half of the machine was always a road for the other half, and that such a machine never rolled upon the ground, a carriage might be made, which should carry a road for itself. It is already certain, that a carriage moving on an iron railway may be drawn with a fourth part of the force requisite to draw it on a common road. After having made a number of models of my machine, that should carry and lay down its own road, *I took out a patent to secure to myself the principle;* but the term of my patent has been long since expired, without my having been able to unite to my satisfaction in this machine strength with sufficient lightness, and with regular motion, so as to obtain the advantages I proposed. As an *encouragement to perseverance*, I assure my readers, that I never lost sight of this scheme during *forty years;* that I have made considerably above *one hundred* working models upon this principle, in a great variety of forms; and that *although I have not yet been able to accomplish my project, I am still satisfied that it is feasible.*"

Justice, however, will not permit us to go to other matters contained in these most entertaining biographical notices, without cautioning the reader not to take the standard of the utility and intelligence of Mr. Edgeworth's mechanical pursuits, from these specimens of his achievements in this line. He effected much of a more useful nature, and appears to have had very considerable talent in this way—but so in fact had *King Corny.*

Mr. Edgeworth's first marriage was the only unsuitable one of the several it was his fortune to make; and not finding his wife cheerful at home, he says, led him to seek cheerful company abroad. In fact, before the death of his father, we find him quite involved in the vortex of dissipation and fashion. His picture of the *beau monde* of those times is not without its charms. Among the ladies who visited the Mrs. Blakes, was a Miss Dalton, the famous "Fanny, blooming fair," whom lord Chesterfield has celebrated. He was ingenious enough to detect the legerdemain tricks of the "celebrated Comus." Miss D. told him that her relation, the famous sir Francis Blake Delaval, had also discovered these secrets, and believed himself to be the only man in England who possessed them. This brought about an acquaintance, or rather intimacy, between Mr. Edgeworth and sir Francis, from the description of the incidents of which we derive much amusement. They arranged together the house in Downing street, where sir Francis lived, for the representation of conjuring tricks.

"The ingenuity of some of the contrivances, that were employed in our deceptions, attracted the notice not only of those who sought mere amusement, but of men of letters and science, who came to our exhibitions. This circumstance was highly grateful to sir Francis, and advantageous to me. I, by these means, became acquainted with many men of eminence, to whom I could not at any period of my life have otherwise obtained familiar access. Among the number were Dr. Knight, of the British Museum; Dr. Watson; Mr. Wilson; Mr. Espinasse, the electrician; Foote, the author and actor, a man, who, beside his well known humour, possessed a considerable fund of real feeling; Macklin, and all the famous actors of the day. They resorted to a constant table, which was open to men of genius and merit in every department of literature and science. I cannot say, that his guests were always 'unelbowed by a player;' but I can truly assert, that none but those who were an honour to the stage, and who were admitted into the best company at other houses, were received at sir Francis Delaval's."

They got up the tragedy of the Fair Penitent here, to allow the late duke of York, who afterwards died suddenly at Rome, to play Lothario; and "he was as warm, as hasty, and as much in love, as the fair Calista could possibly wish." A pleasant supper party, he says, they had at the King's Arms, Covent Garden, after the performance.

"Macklin called for a nightcap, and threw off his wig. This, it was whispered to me, was a signal of his intention to be entertaining. Plays, playwrights, enunciation, action, every thing belonging to eloquence of every species was discussed. Angelo, the graceful fencing master, and Bensley, the actor, were of the party; Angelo was consulted by Bensley, on what he ought to do with his hands while he was speaking. Angelo told him, that it was impossible to prescribe what he should always do with them; but that it was easy to tell him what should *not* be done—"he should not put them into his breeches pocket"—a custom to which poor Bensley was much addicted. Pronunciation was discussed; the faults in our language in this particular were copiously enumerated. 'For instance,' said Macklin, '*Pare* me a *pair* of *pears*.' You may take three words out of this sentence, of the same sound, but of different meaning, and I defy any man to pronounce them in such a manner as to discriminate the sounds, or to mark to any ear by his pronunciation the difference betweem the verb, *to pare*, the noun of number, *a pair*, and the fruit, *pear*. The pompous Bensley undertook that Powel, who was remarkable for a good ear, should do this. Bensley, who mouthed prodigiously while he spoke, was put behind a curtain, that the motion of his lips might not assist Powel in judging what meaning he intended to express by each of the words as he pronounced them. One of the company was placed behind the curtain, and to him Bensley was previously to communicate, whether he proposed to pronounce the word denoting the action, the noun of number, or the fruit. Bensley failed so often, and so ridiculously, that he became quite angry, and charged Powel with wilful misapprehension. To defend himself, Powel proposed that Holland should try his skill; but Holland had no better success. During these trials, I concerted by signs with sir Francis a method of pointing out my meaning, and I offered to try my skill. The audience with difficulty restrained their contempt; but I took my place behind the curtain, and they were soon compelled to acknowledge, that I had a more distinct pronunciation, or that sir Francis had more acute hearing, than the rest of the company. Out of twenty experiments I never failed more than two or three times, and in these I failed on purpose, to prevent suspicion. I had made my

confederate understand, that when I turned my right foot outward, as it appeared from beneath the curtain, I meant to say *pare*, to cut; when I turned it inward, *pair*, a couple; and when it was straight forward, *pear*, the fruit. We kept our own counsel, and won unmerited applause. Amidst such trifling as this, much sound criticism was mixed, which improved my literary taste, and a number of entertaining anecdotes were related, which informed my inexperienced mind with knowledge of the world."

One of the many excellent anecdotes which Mr. Edgeworth introduces relative to the extraordinary man of the town with whom he was now passing his time, we shall give as a sample. Sir Francis had contrived to represent the borough of Andover, in several parliaments, by practising a series of tricks on his constituents: but at length, he sustained a reverse of fortune, and his electioneering success terminated.

His attorney's bill was yet to be discharged. It had been running on for many years, and though large sums had been paid on account, a prodigious balance still remained to be adjusted. The affair came before the King's Bench. Among a variety of exorbitant and monstrous charges there appeared the following article.

"To being thrown out of the window at the George inn, Andover—to my leg being thereby broken—to surgeon's bill, and loss of time and business—all in the service of sir F. B. Delaval.—Five hundred pounds.

"When this curious *item* came to be explained, it appeared, that the attorney had, by way of promoting sir Francis's interest in the borough, sent cards of invitation to the officers of a regiment in the town, in the name of the mayor and corporation, inviting them to dine and drink his majesty's health on his birthday. He, at the same time, wrote a similar invitation to the mayor and corporation, in the name of the officers of the regiment. The two companies met, complimented each other, eat a good dinner, drank a hearty bottle of wine to his majesty's health, and prepared to break up. The commanding officer of the regiment, being the politest man in company, made a handsome speech to Mr. Mayor, thanking him for his hospitable invitation and entertainment. 'No, colonel,' replied the mayor, 'it is to you that thanks are due by me and by my brother aldermen for your generous treat to us.' The colonel replied with as much warmth as good breeding would allow: the mayor retorted with downright anger, swearing that he would not be choused by the bravest colonel in his majesty's service—"Mr. Mayor," said the colonel, "there is no necessity for displaying any vulgar passion on this occasion. Permit me to show you, that I have here your obliging card of invitation.' 'Nay, Mr. Colonel, here is no opportunity for bantering, there is your card.'

"Upon examining the cards, it was observed, that notwithstanding an attempt to disguise it, both cards were written in the same hand, by some person who had designed to make fools of them all. Every eye of the corporation turned spontaneously upon the attorney, who, of course, attended all public meetings. His impudence suddenly gave way, he faltered and betrayed himself so fully by his confusion, that the colonel, in a fit of summary justice, threw him out of the window. For this sir Francis Delaval was charged five hundred pounds. Whether he paid the money or not, I forget."

ST. CLAIR'S CAMPAIGN.

From the Western Review.

General Harmer's expedition, of which an account was given in the Western Review for April last, not having answered the purpose intended, viz. that of bringing about a peace with the northern Indians, Congress passed an act adding to the establishment another regiment of regular troops, which was placed under the command of general Arthur St. Clair, and general Richard Butler was made second in rank, which last appointment determined general Harmer to leave the service. The delay in the quartermaster's department was so great, that it was late in September before the army was ready to leave Fort Washington, and when it arrived at the Big Miami river, a fort was commenced, the erection of which, from the rawness of the troops, occupied more than two weeks. The army then, about the 4th of October, 1791, attempted to march by two roads, opened at 400 yards distance from each other, and proceeded about two miles; the line of march was then altered, and they proceeded, in two days more, about twelve miles, when the country became more open. They then continued in a direct line, N. 16° W. until stopped, at thirty-six miles from the Big Miami, by an impenetrable swamp or morass. Upon strict search, an old Indian path was found, which the general concluded to follow, as the whole country appeared to be full of these morasses. At about sixty-eight miles from the Ohio river a second fort was built, call-

ed Fort Jefferson, before the completion of which the contract failed, and the public horses had to be sent back for a supply of provisions. The men were put on an allowance of half a pound of flour and a pound of beef per day for one week, and were then limited to a quarter of a pound of flour per day to the end of the campaign. Fort Jefferson having been finished, the troops moved on six miles, to the place where Greenville was afterwards built, and remained there a week. Having then received a small supply of provisions, they moved on twelve miles to Still Water, where about one hundred and fifty or two hundred of the Kentucky militia deserted. The general, being apprehensive they would fall in with and destroy a convoy of provisions which was expected, detached major Hamtramock, with the principal part of the first regiment, to meet the convoy and protect it. As the major passed the encampment (six miles from Fort Jefferson), a party of Indians was discovered reconnoitring, who fled at his approach. The regiment proceeded to the tree, nineteen miles from the Miami river, where it was expected the convoy of provisions would be in waiting, but none was there. The detachment then commenced its march back to the army, but did not arrive in time to render any service.

The army had advanced, on the night of the 3d of November, thirty miles from Fort Jefferson, to the bank of one of the forks of the Wabash, and just after daylight next morning a general attack was made on the whole army, which was completely surrounded, and received a most deadly fire, from the enemy on every side. The troops stood up in their ranks and received the fire for some time, when general Butler ordered a charge with the right wing, and drove the enemy a considerable distance; but the troops, on returning to their encampment, were followed by the enemy, firing on their rear. A second charge was then made by the same troops with similar success, and similar loss. General Butler, having received two wounds, both of which were dressed, determined to make a third charge, but, just as he was mounting his horse for the purpose, he received a mortal wound. By this time the field was strewed with the dead and dying. General St. Clair, being ill with the gout, and scarcely able to sit on horseback, entertaining no hopes of victory, but seeing the greater part of his officers either killed or wounded, ordered his troops to charge at the road and to go home; by which means they broke through the enemy. Now commenced the most disgraceful part of the scene. As the greater portion of the men threw away their arms, and every thing that was cumbersome, the ground was strewed with dead bodies, hats, coats, and shoes, for about four miles, where the enemy gave over the chase. The returns of the killed and missing amounted to seven hundred and fifty privates and seven officers; but including wagoners, pack horsemen, and bullock drivers, there were upwards of one thousand, besides a great number of women, who had been injudiciously suffered to follow the army.

Great blame has been cast on general St. Clair for the failure of this expedition, but the fault rested principally with the quartermaster general, who took a considerable time in having tent poles and packsaddles made in Philadelphia, and transported across the mountains. The former were laid by as useless, the troops preferring to cut tent poles where they encamped, rather than to carry them, and the packsaddles were so large, that they injured the back of every horse on which they were placed, although they cost, exclusive of transportation, double the price of good ones in Pittsburgh. General Butler saw they would not answer, and ordered others to be procured before he left Pittsburgh, otherwise the army would not have been able to move at all.

Another cause of the failure, which cannot be attributed to general St. Clair, was the nature of the troops, of which one half of his army was composed. They were levied for six months only, were badly clothed, and had to stand out in that climate with linen pantaloons nearly worn out; many of them were without shoes, with only part of a hat, and the remains of what had been called a coat; very few had shirts, and, what was worse than all, they were half starved. The contract having failed, the army ought to have returned, but the general had no discretionary orders. He was to go on at all events to the Miami village, where Harmer had been the fall before, and the contractor undertook with two hundred horses to supply the army with flour, although one thousand would have been insufficient for the purpose. The only error I attribute to general St. Clair was his not following Harmer's route, as he had a number of officers with him, who could have been his guides, told him what kind of country he had to pass, and where to look out for ambuscades, but perhaps he was ordered to take the

route he did. I cannot forbear to mention the shameful conduct of some of the quartermasters, in cheating the soldiers out of part of their small allowance. It had been agreed that where the beef was drawn in large drafts, 5 per cent. should be allowed to make up for the waste in dividing between messes; this 5 per cent. those quartermasters appropriated to their own use, and indeed, it was said, frequently more.

Forts Jefferson and Hamilton were retained, notwithstanding the great advantage the enemy had gained. Brigadier general Wilkinson was sent on to take the command of the residue of the troops, consisting of part of the 1st and 2d regiments of infantry. In the course of the winter, the general made an excursion to the field of battle, and received one piece of cannon and all the carriages, also one travelling forge, and some tools. The next summer was devoted to getting on a supply of provisions in advance, and reconnoitring the country. General Wilkinson made a second visit to St. Clair's battle ground, found one piece of cannon which the Indians had hid, and removed it to another place. The troops at Forts Jefferson and Hamilton were also employed part of the summer in getting a quantity of hay for the use of the cavalry that was expected at Fort Jefferson. The haymakers were attacked, and a sergeant, corporal, and fifteen privates, killed or taken. A few were also taken from Fort Hamilton.

This summer, three different flags, with proposals of peace, were sent to the Indians; the first by Mr. Freeman, who was killed on the Little Miami river, the other two by colonel John Hardin of Kentucky, and major Freeman of the regular troops, who set out together and kept in company to the place now called St. Marks, where they separated, colonel Hardin taking the route to Sandusky, and major Freeman to the mouth of the Auglaze. Nothing certain has ever been known of the fate of colonel Hardin. Major Freeman had arrived within a few miles of his destination, when he was treacherously massacred in the night by two savages. The interpreter, who was with him, escaped, and relates that, a few days after, he saw colonel Hardin's horses and clothes brought in, which is all that has ever been heard respecting him since.

The Deaf and Dumb fond of Music.

The following interesting account of the fondness for music of an artist born deaf and dumb, is extracted from a recent work on the art of instructing the deaf and dumb, by John Pauncefort Arrowsmith. It is part of a letter written by G. Chippendale, esq. of Winwick, copied into the work of Mr. Arrowsmith, as illustrative of this sense of feeling in his brother.

"Some years back, probably five or six, a young gentleman of the name of Arrowsmith, a member of the royal academy at Somerset House, of what degree I cannot remember, came down into this country, and resided some months in Warrington, in the exercise of his profession as a miniature and portrait painter. He was quite deaf, so as to be entirely dumb. He had been taught to write, and wrote an elegant hand, in which he was enabled to express his own ideas with facility; he was also able to read and understand the ideas of others expressed in writing. It will scarcely be credited, that a person thus circumstanced should be fond of music, but this was the fact in the case of Mr. Arrowsmith. He was at a gentleman's glee club, of which I was president at that time, and as the glees were sung, he would place himself near some articles of wooden furniture, or a partition, door, or window shutter, and would fix the extreme ends of his finger nails, which he kept rather long, upon the edge of the wood or some projecting part of it, and there remain, until the piece under performance was finished, all the while expressing, by the most significant gestures, the pleasure he experienced from his perception of the musical sounds. He was not so much pleased with a solo, as with a pretty full clash of harmony; and if the music was not very good, or, I should rather say, if it was not correctly executed, he would show no sensation of pleasure. But the most extraordinary circumstance in this case is, that he was most evidently delighted with those passages in which the composer displayed his science in modulating his different keys. When such passages happened to be executed with precision, he could scarcely repress the emotions of pleasure he received within any bounds; for the delight he evinced seemed to border on ecstasy.

"This was expressed most remarkably at our club when the glee was sung, with which we often conclude; it is by Stevens, and begins with the words, "Ye spotted snakes," &c. from Shakspeare's Midsummer's Night Dream. In the second stanza, on the words, "Weaving spiders come not here," &c. there is some modulation of the kind above alluded to, and here Mr. Ar-

rowsmith would be in raptures, such as would not be exceeded by one who was in immediate possession of the sense of hearing.

"These facts are very extraordinary ones; and that they are facts can be proved by the evidence of six or eight gentlemen who were present, and by turns observed him accurately."

The Democratic Press states, that "by private advices, we learn that the British admiral, sir H. Popham, has at length concluded a treaty with Christophe, by which he is to pay to the British government at the rate of forty-five dollars a head for every negro which they may land in his dominions. It is presumed the negroes taken on board slave ships will by the British be sent to Hayti. We are assured that this step has been taken by Christophe, because he has ascertained that his subjects decrease at the rate of six per cent. per annum."

This is a very strange story. Supposing nobody is ever born in Christophe's dominions, his subjects must die twice as fast as the usual rates to produce such a decrease. His tyrannical reign is not very favourable to the increase of population, but we have no doubt that it allows of a constant though perhaps a slow augmentation.

The Hon. William Griffith, of New Jersey, has published a prospectus of a periodical work, to be entitled, *The Law Register of the United States.* "The design of this publication is to disseminate throughout the United States and its territories, information on all those subjects falling within the range of 'legal institutions,' which may be deemed important and generally useful." To be published semi-annually, in half volumes of 250 pages, at five dollars per annum. The first half volume will be published by the first of July, 1821.

Absence of Mind.—Among a number of instances of the celebrated Dr. Moncey's absence of mind, is one which he frequently mentioned, and laughed at heartily, when in good humour, at the same time observing that his brother was as bad as himself. The doctor being once on a visit to his brother, in Norfolk, in the beginning of winter, and intending to set off for London the next day, his brother proposed to go and shoot wild ducks early in the morning, that he might carry two or three couple fresh killed to London with him. The servant was ordered to clean the long fowling piece, get plenty of powder and shot, and to goose-grease their boots. Every thing being in readiness according to their desire, about an hour before daylight the doctor and his brother set off for the place where the ducks resort, in order to be there by the break of day, when they generally take wing to go to feed. They had walked nearly three miles, and it having rained in the night, the clay mud wall was very dirty and greasy, when they heard the cry of the ducks. They were now obliged to get over the wall and the gate, across a sluice into the marsh where the ducks were. The rain had raised the water about a foot. It was then proposed that one should go over, and the other remain behind. Says the doctor, "George, do you go over, for I have forgotten my boots." "So have I, doctor," says his brother; "but we won't lose our sport, as we have come so far." So both waded through, and got over the gate into the marsh, and advancing along the fleet, they at length perceived the ducks. "You are near enough, George," said the doctor. "Aye," replied George, "I think we are not above an hundred yards off." "Why then fire," says the doctor." "Do you fire," returned George. "Why I hav'nt got the gun; do you fire." "I fire! why I have not got the gun," said his brother, "I thought you had it. What a fine opportunity is lost. Here are not less than thirty ducks within shot, and neither of us have got the gun."

It is calculated that a person has 1500 opportunities of leaving London in the course of 24 hours by stage coaches, including the repeated trips of the coaches which run short distances. It is understood that 300 stage coaches pass through Hyde Park corner daily.

Literature and Science.

Homer's Iliad.—A copy of Homer's Iliad has been discovered in the Ambrosian library of Milan, which appears to be of the fourth century, nearly six ages older than that on which the editions of Homer are founded. It contains 60 pictures, equally ancient. They are on vellum.

The characters of the manuscripts, are square capitals, according to the usage of the best ages, without distinction of words, without accents or the aspirates; that is to say, without any sign of the modern Greek orthography.

Gay Lussac has shown by experiment, that when a delicate air thermometer is inclosed in a vacuum, and that vacuum is suddenly either enlarged or diminished, no change whatever takes place in the thermometer. But if the smallest quantity of air be admitted, this compression, or more properly the diminution of the space, occasions an elevation of temperature, and the enlargement occasions cold. This result he seems to consider as strengthening the hypothesis, that caloric is not matter, or that it does not exist independent of matter. [*Ann. de Chimie*, 1820.

Education in Africa.—At the French settlement of St. Louis, in Senegal, a school has been opened on the system of mutual instruction. It is attended by 150 children. The kings of Galam and of Bambouk, more than 200 leagues in the interior, have sent their children to this school. Lessons have been prepared both in the French and Yolof languages. M. Dard, the director of the school, has prepared a grammar and a dictionary of the Yolof (or Wolof). He has also translated into that language the Old and New Testaments. A school of 50 girls is also taught there by French nuns. Several African princes have visited the school, and measures have been taken to establish others in the interior. The Senegal children possess great aptitude for instruction. They read, write, and calculate with facility. Several of the monitors have become qualified to conduct other schools. The teacher (Dard) appears to be a man of great merit. The establishment at St. Louis is under the direction of the Education Society in Paris.

A society is to be established in Edinburgh for the promotion of arts, similar to that in London, and connected with a repository of models on the plan of that at the Adelphi.

The king of Denmark has granted a pension of 200 crowns, during two years, to four persons distinguished for their knowledge, to encourage them to travel in foreign countries.

Dr. Perret, of Switzerland, has found that the root of the plantain (plantago major, minor et lantifolia,) is an excellent febrifuge.

Literature of the Low Countries.—During the first quarter of the present year, there have appeared in the Low Countries (kingdom of Holland) 386 new publications; of which 88 are original. Of these, 60 are in Dutch, 9 in French, 4 in Flemish, 4 in Latin, and 11 in other languages.

Bohea tea has been successfully cultivated in the department of Arriege, in France.

Necrology.—Sir Charles Blagden, the celebrated English philosopher, died at the house of count Berthollet, at Arceuil, near Paris, on the 26th of March last. He was eighty years of age, and retained to the last the sprightliness and vivacity of middle age. He spent much of his time in France, and was a diligent attendant of the Institute, in which he held an honourable seat. He was noted for pursuing the most exact plan in the distribution of his time, in his meals, his visits, &c. He kept a journal of passing events, in which were found the occurrences of the morning preceding his death. He kept up a regular correspondence with his friend, sir Joseph Banks. He left a considerable fortune, and was very liberal towards the poor.

Volney, the French traveller and philosopher, died on the 22d of April last, aged sixty-three.

Seybert's Statistics have been translated into French. The author is much dissatisfied with the manner in which the translation has been executed, and thus speaks of it in a letter to the editor of the *Révue Encyclopédique:* "This book is announced as a translation of mine; but it is an entirely different work. Mr. Sheffer has not been satisfied with expunging, in each chapter, a great number of data and official details; he has allowed himself to change many paragraphs; to substitute other ideas for mine; to pervert the sense of my words, and to alter the expression of my feelings. I therefore solemnly disavow this pretended translation; and I appeal for the necessity of this step to the judgment of those who shall be so obliging as to compare the two works. I will add, that my book, a very large quarto, contains 824 pages, and that of Mr. Sheffer, in common octavo, has but 455, although the type of the two works is of about the same size.

"I beg you to insert this letter in the next number of your estimable journal."

It is stated in the *Révue Encyclopédique*, that the whole number of works in the Russian language, original and translated, is 3400; the proportion of translations is about one half, chiefly from the French and German. The number of journals and periodical works generally, published in Russia, is estimated at fifty.

Dr. Annibal Patrelli, a Neapolitan, is now printing books at Naples by the lithographic method. He employs all kinds of stones that are compact and susceptible of polish.

There are no less than seventy-one considerable printing establishments in Lombardy. The importation of books into Italy, from Germany, France and England, is said to have increased beyond all calculation, since the general peace. Political works make up a large part of this importation.

A French version has recently appeared in Paris, of *Karamsin's New History of Russia*, the most authentic and complete work on the subject. It contains an extract from the code of Iaroslof, showing that the trial by jury in criminal cases, was established in Russia, with all the forms which it has in England and the United States, at so early a period as the thirteenth century.

Mr. C. S. Rafinesque, in a letter to Mr. Caleb Atwater, says that he has lately heard that something like the ruins of a town built with sun burnt bricks, mixed with straw, and in which brick wells have been seen, also the appearances of houses, streets, &c. have been discovered not far from the western bank of the Mississippi, between New Madrid and the mouth of the river Arkansas.

Proposals are issued at Albany, for printing by subscription, "Travels in France and Italy, in 1817 and 1818, by the Rev. Wm. Berrian, an assistant minister in Trinity Church, New York."

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of a resolution of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, passed June 20, 1820, authorizing a committee, consisting of the President and Curators, to publish such communications to the society as they may think proper—it was resolved by the committee, that the following be printed in the National Recorder.

By order of the Curators.

I. C. Jones.

New York, 9th Mo. 25th, 1820.

Agreeably to my promise, I hand the direction for burning clay for manure; the process is so simple that it is hardly possible any one should miss it.

In the first place, plough a piece of clay ground when pretty wet, as deep as you conveniently can; let it remain till a dry season, when you are to build a cross pile of wood, four feet in length, two feet in height, and sufficiently compact to burn well. You are to build a bank of clay sods, two feet thick, around your wood, and about two and a half feet high; you are now to set fire to the bottom of the wood in several places; when completely on fire, you are to put a light covering of sods over the top, which by degrees continue, until you have nearly closed up every avenue for the smoke to escape; now begin throwing lumps of clay and sods on such parts as you find the smoke escaping through. Should your fire be making too rapid a progress, you are to select the clay with which you will generally be able to keep it within bounds, especially if there should be moisture in it. But in case you are not able to keep it down, you should with shovels throw on fine clay; on the other hand, if the process is too tardy, let a larger portion of sods be substituted, but during the whole process care must be taken to lose as little smoke as possible. At night, when you leave the kiln, you should give it a double coat of fine clay, which will generally retain the smoke till early on the ensuing morning. It will be found most convenient to make your kilns to contain twenty to thirty loads, as you will have less labour in carrying the clay to them; and by having them dispersed, there will be less carting of the ashes.

It will require from ten days to three weeks to burn a kiln. The length of time will depend on the weather, the quantity of wood used, and the size of your kiln. The ashes are excellent manure for grain, grass, turnips, and other vegetables; a large quart of well burnt ashes for a hill of Indian corn, twenty loads for an acre of wheat or grass.

Respectfully, thy friend,

William Shotwell.

Reuben Haines.

Our readers will recollect that in a letter "on the mode of making butter in Brittany," published at p. 48, of this volume, Mr. Francis Da Costa alluded to a steam hydraulic engine upon a much improved plan lately invented. The Curators of the Agricultural Society directed Mr. Haines to write for further information, and the following letter was received in reply.

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Nantes, August 25, 1820.

Respected Friend—Your esteemed letter of the 21st of March has just now reached me. It is with heartfelt pleasure I learn of my communications to you having been well received. The description of the steam hydraulic engine has not yet appeared in any print; the inventors, who are two brothers, officers in the Royal Artillery, and supposed to be no strangers to mathematical and philosophical science, wanted a subscription to a large amount to be filled, for delivering a certain number of ready made machines, at a certain price, to pay them for their discovery (the patent law in this country being very defective). The time limited to subscribe having expired without their subscription being filled, they have withdrawn their proposals, and since May last I have not heard any thing of it. Another person has come forward to propose an invention of the same kind, and upon terms still more advantageous than those proposed by Coessin's brothers; but the friend who mentioned it to me has not given the particulars about it. There are so many foreigners in Paris watching what is coming out new, that the inventors are very shy, and very little encouraged by government. An auto-blaze boiler for cooking has been lately put up in Paris, which proves to be very quick in its operation and very economical in the consumption of fuel. The English have already carried it over, and talk of it in the highest terms. If I can get a sight of it I will give you a description of it, and so of an improved forge bellows, which I have lately put up at my factory here, and which gives me as much blast as one three times larger, and cost me but twenty dollars. I am, very respectfully, your very humble servant,

FRANCIS DA COSTA.

Reuben Haines, esq.

To prevent Horses being teazed by Flies. Put walnut leaves in water; let them remain all night; boil them in the morning, and with a sponge moisten those parts which are most irritable.

Record.

ELECTION.

The General Election took place in Pennsylvania on the 10th October. The complete returns for governor have not yet reached this city, but enough is known to make the election of Joseph Hiester certain.

The following is a statement of the city election.

*Congress.**—John Sergeant,† 4387; Joseph Hemphill, 3095; Samuel Edwards, 2925; William Milnor, 3008.

Assembly.—William Lehman, Samuel J. Robbins, George Emlen, John Edwards, William R. Atlee.

Select Council.—Joseph S. Lewis, Wm. Rush, John M. Scott, Wm. Meredith.

Common Council.—Dr. Samuel Jackson, James Cresson, Thomas Hale, John M. Price, John Markland, Benjamin Tilghman, James S. Smith, Bankson Taylor, Daniel Knight, John R. Coates, Thomas Williams, Benjamin Jones, jr. Ephraim Haines, Charles Watson, Samuel G. Wright, John Miller, jr. Armon Davis, John Rogers, Samuel Palmer, Samuel Robinson.

County Commissioner.—Samuel Pancoast, jr.

Coroner.—John Dennis.

Auditor.—Samuel Volans.

The Select Council has re-elected George Vaux president, and Thomas Bradford, jr. clerk.

The Common Council has elected James S. Smith president, and John C. Lowber clerk.

On Tuesday, the 17th, the councils met in convention, and elected Robert Wharton, esq. mayor of the city.

The Academy of Natural Sciences in this city has received from the president, Mr. William Maclure, now in France, a donation of books, amounting in value to about $4,000, and have received advice of another valuable shipment from the same munificent hand.

By a table lately published, it appears that the whole number of Indians now residing in the forests of the state of Ohio, does not exceed 2400.

Missouri.—Governor M'Nair delivered the following speech at the commencement of the session of the legislature:

Fellow Citizens of the Senate, and of the House of Representatives,

Having been notified by you that I have been called by the voice of my fellow citizens, to fill the office of governor of the state of Missouri, it becomes my duty to enter upon the discharge of the arduous and important duties which the constitution of our state has assigned to that magistrate.

In doing so, I cannot but feel the greatest diffidence and embarrassment, arising as well from a want of experience in the affairs of the

* The representatives to Congress are sent from the district, composed of the city and county of Philadelphia and county of Delaware.

† This gentleman had an almost unanimous vote.

civil administration, as from the present important political crises of our country. Relying, however, much upon the aid which I shall receive from the representatives of a liberal and enlightened people, and above all, relying upon the protection of that Supreme Being who watches over and directs the destinies of nations, I feel encouraged in entering upon the arduous task before me.

I congratulate you, gentlemen, upon the happy change which has just taken place in our political affairs. From the dependent condition of a territorial government, we have passed into a sovereign and independent state. We have formed for ourselves a constitution which though perhaps not free from the imperfections incident to all human institutions, does honour to the character and intelligence of our infant state, and gives us every reason to expect that we shall without further difficulty be admitted into the federal union.

Much remains yet to be done to insure to ourselves the perfect enjoyment of all the inestimable blessings of self government, and it becomes us, in the measures which we shall adopt to put the new government into operation, to act with a degree of prudence and deliberation comporting with the importance of the duties to be performed, as the future character and prosperity of our country, in a very great degree, depends upon the measures of the first general assembly.

You will have the constitution laid before you, which points out the principal subjects of immediate legislation to put the new government in operation.

It is deemed advisable to remind you that the election of president and vice-president of the United States is approaching, and that it will be necessary to make provision as soon as possible for the election of three electors in this state, in order that we may have a voice in filling those highly important offices.

Gentlemen, I shall from time to time make to you such further communications as in the progress of your labours shall become necessary: and be assured, that I shall at all times, most readily and cheerfully co-operate with you to the best of my abilities in all measures calculated to promote the welfare of our country.

ALEXANDER M'NAIR.

St. Louis, September 19, 1820.

The editor of the St. Louis Enquirer says that some Philadelphians have had engraved a coat of arms and seal for Missouri. By way of showing to the inhabitants the deep rancour against them felt by the ignorant in Pennsylvania, he has been at the "expense of engraving the same figures."

"The first object in the picture is a parcel of handcuffs, which are called the family jewels of Missourians, and worn by their ancestors, &c.

"The second is a representation of one Missourian shooting another in the back.

"The third is a representation of two Missourians fighting with a cudgel and a whip.

"The fourth is the representation of a naked negro lying on the ground, a Missourian standing over him and whipping him with two whips.

"The motto is: Turn pale at no crime.

"This thing at first view excites nothing but feeling of contempt; but let it be recollected that idle abuse was not the object of those who did it. They have too much cunning mixed up with their malice for that. Their object is by such sights to inflame the ignorant, to make them vote against the rights of Missouri at elections, and to prepare the body of the people for the division of the union and a war of the free states against the slave states." [*St. L. Enq.*

We copy the following account of Mr. Guille's late ascension, in his own words, from the AURORA:

"I started at 3 o'clock and 35 minutes, on Saturday afternoon, the 14th October. By some mistake, and many people interfering to assist me in ascending, the balloon lost a considerable quantity of the gas. In less than five minutes I ascended to the distance of 1000 feet, when the earth disappeared to my view, there was not a sufficiency of distance between my situation and the earth, that to disengage myself from the balloon would have been attended with great danger. In this situation, when I could not see any part of the earth, I remained about 30 minutes, when I was transferred to a clear region, and had the advantage of the sun, which made the earth appear to me to be covered with snow; from thence I entered into another region of clouds, much darker than the former ones, and having no valve to my balloon, I was obliged to ascend much higher than I would otherwise have done. In this situation, when I ascended about 35,000 feet, according to the calculation I made with the help of a barometer, which I had with me, the air was so obscure, that I could neither see the balloon or parachute, and owing to the great cold I experienced, and also the fatigue, I fell asleep, and slept for some time. I would still have continued to ascend, had it not been for the wet state of the balloon, which made it very heavy, and this I attribute to the cause why my descent was sooner than I expected. A singular circumstance, and which I never have experienced, happened to me in my descent—during the time I remained surrounded by clouds, I could distinctly hear the report of some guns—I attribute this to the atmosphere being generally covered with clouds, and I believe that a commotion in the air will sooner communicate it to a dark than a clear atmosphere. When I first discovered the earth, I descended so rapidly, owing to the balloon being so heavy, that my parachute opened itself. When I got to the ground, in an open field, and having no grappling irons, I was dragged about the distance of Market street, until the balloon was arrested in its course by a forest, where with the assistance of some persons, I was able to get out of my basket and secure the balloon. Mr. Ralph H. Smith, to whom I herewith offer my sincerest thanks, was kind enough to accompany me to Trenton, where we arrived at 8 o'clock, P. M.

"CHARLES GUILLE.

"*October* 16, 1820."

Professor Patterson proposes to deliver a course of lectures on Natural Philosophy, at the university, during the present winter. The lectures will be given on Monday and Thursday

evenings, at 7 o'clock. The price of the ticket, for ladies as well as gentlemen, will be ten dollars. Due notice will be given of the commencement of the course.

The news from our settlement on the African coast is very distressing. We particularly regret the death of the Rev. Mr. Bacon, whom we had the pleasure of knowing before he commenced the ministry of the gospel. He was, during the war, an officer in the marine corps, and much esteemed for his personal qualities. We receive this news with sorrow. But we do not, from this untoward event, at all despair of the ultimate accomplishment of the object of this government and of the colonization societies. The error was palpably in the agents remaining too long on the low coast of that country, which, like similar points of our own coast, the Delta of the Mississippi for example, is scarcely habitable at certain seasons of the year. A better spot must be selected: the emigrants must settle on more elevated ground, at a farther distance from the water, and better adapted for tillage, as agriculture will be the first and principal occupation of the settlers. If we consult the history of the settlement of all countries, we shall find that the first parties of settlers have frequently fallen a sacrifice to imprudence in their location, to improvidence, or to ignorance of the peculiarities of the climate. Such was remarkably the case with the first settlers of Virginia: but they persevered: reinforcements were sent out—in the course of time they selected healthy situations, defended themselves against disease by the modes which experience pointed out to them—and flourished and multiplied until they became what the commonwealth of Virginia now is. Let, then, the friends of the great plan of restoring the Africans to the home of their fathers, and the government which co-operates with them, without stopping to grieve at what cannot be repaired, turn their attention to the means of prevention of similar disaster, and of thus securing to their efforts the success which they merit. [*Nat. Int.*

At a late meeting of a number of lords and gentlemen at Mr. Coke's annual agricultural festival, lord Erskine made a speech principally consisting of strictures upon the conduct of the advocates of free trade. His lordship thought the impropriety of importing grain so clear, that it was unnecessary to bring forward any *arguments* to support his opinion. He indulged himself in the following attempt at wit.

Gentlemen—There is a very large building called the New Bedlam, which I never pass without a sigh: I hope it is not full; nor do I know whether all the people get there who are most worthy of such a provision; but I do think that the people I have just alluded to, have a striking claim to that national charity, and I wonder that their best friends don't apply to the statute, and place them in a receptacle adapted to their unhappy case. They say we should have *free trade:* no doubt but this is best for all nations who are on equal terms, but otherwise it is sheer madness, and deserves no consideration from reasonable men. Gentlemen—I should be thought to overstep the precise line of my duty were I to expatiate on the causes of that difference which makes free trade impracticable with us; but it is necessary to state the fact, although I do not dwell upon the cause. Observe that I should not be understood to provoke any evil imputation, or couple political discussions with the matter in hand. I may explain my notion in this by a short anecdote:—A gentleman, whose name was *Caswell*, was addressed by a friend, who said, "Sir, if the C were taken from your name, it would be *as* well." "What do you mean," cries the gentleman, "by punning upon my name, and ridiculing me?" "I do not ridicule you," said his friend; "I only state a fact." Thus it was in many cases; and those who would run to meet offence were pretty sure to find it, and might often fancy it where it was never intended.

Spain, Russia and the Floridas.—There are, we understand, good grounds for believing that the Russian court has directly acknowledged the constitutional system re-established in Spain, and congratulated the Spanish monarch on the harmony subsisting between him and his new ministers and advisers. It is also said, upon information which we think worthy of credit, that the new administration in Spain are decidedly in favour of the ratification of the Florida treaty, and had resolved to exert to that end their influence with the Cortes. We have heard of a very amicable correspondence between the Spanish secretary of state and Mr. Forsyth, in which the latter makes full amends by the glowing kindness of his tone for the asperity of his former address. We rejoice in every act of conciliation and kindly communion between the two governments, because we believe the arrangements of the treaty are the best that could be made under all circumstances, and that the final confirmation of them will be for their mutual advantage. The *rights* of this country cannot be relinquished out of deference to the noble career in which the Spanish liberals are engaged; but in asserting them we owe every testimonial of consideration and sympathy compatible with the main subject. [*Nat. Gaz.*

The ship of the line now on the stocks at Norfolk, is to be launched on the 21st instant. Her name, as ascertained by lot, according to law, is the DELAWARE.

The Rev. Joshua L. Wilson has been appointed professor of Moral Philosophy, and the Rev. Samuel Johnson professor of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, in the Cincinnati college.

TERMS OF PUBLICATION.

Subscriptions to the National Recorder may commence at any time, though it is desirable that they should begin with a volume: they may be withdrawn at the close of any volume, provided notice be sent before any part of the next volume shall have been forwarded. Payment to be made in July of each year for the whole year. Such as begin with the second volume of any year, to pay for that volume on the first of January following.

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To Readers and Correspondents.

The communication, signed "SENEX," upon the late election, cannot be published, because, for several reasons, this paper will take sides with no party *as such*. To this course we are determined in the first place, by a hope of securing for it a circulation among the members of all parties, and secondly by an earnest wish that the influence of party spirit may be destroyed. Can it longer be a question whether this emulation be an evil, when we have seen men the most exalted in talents and virtue, prevented by a kind of proscription, from exerting those abilities in the service of the public? We have seen the most eager animosity appear between those who were friends by nature and habit, as soon as a discussion arose which touched upon the prejudices endeared to them by the ties of party. Our hopes, perhaps, influence our opinions, when we say that an important change appears to be silently operating in this respect, and that the time is approaching when an able and independent man may win his way into public life, without any other recommendation than his own character, and with no other pledge than that afforded by known integrity. Such men will decide every public measure upon its own merits, and will not be driven, to insure popularity, to consider what would be most agreeable to the party with which they are united. They will be representatives of the whole, and not agents of a part.

We do not hesitate, however, to join in the earnest wishes of our correspondent, "that the new governor may call to his councils none but those whose integrity and independence are undoubted, and that in his appointments he will always remember that offices are created for the good of the people, and not for the profit of the officer." By a distribution of the places in his gift among such as are qualified, by the respect attached to their private character, to add to the dignity of a public office, he will restore Pennsylvania to her natural weight in the republic, and we shall have no cause to complain of Virginia ascendency. The influence that has so long been maintained by the latter state, has been the deserved reward of the wisdom that always selected men of ability for public employments.

The improvement of this commonwealth is one of the worthiest objects that can animate human ambition. So much has been already effected by the weight of her example, that the legislator would have good reason to believe that his exertions would be felt not only throughout the United States, but among the agitations and tempests of European politics. There are several great objects towards which we should be glad to see the public attention directed; among which are, the improvement of the *practice* of the penitentiary system, and the amendment of the militia system so as to make it less burdensome to all, and to exempt the society of Friends, who deserve it at our hands by their prompt support of every plan for promoting public good. As the law now is, its only effect is to produce idleness and drunken debauchery, and cause an annual loss to the state of a sum sufficient to make all the great improvements in inland navigation, that are so much desired.

There has lately arisen a question under the constitution, of considerable importance. Congress have authorized the corporation of the city of Washington to draw lotteries for effecting any important improvement in the city, which the ordinary revenue will not accomplish: provided that the amount raised shall not exceed ten thousand dollars per annum, and the object shall be approved by the President.

Have the legislatures of the individual states power, by any law which they can pass, to prohibit the sale of the tickets in the lotteries thus established in the city of Washington?

A legal opinion on this question, deciding it in the negative, has been published in the

National Intelligencer, signed by William Pinckney (Md.), David B. Ogden (N. Y.), Thomas Addis Emmet (N.Y.), John Wells (N.Y.), and Walter Jones (D.C.). We were very much surprised at seeing this, for we had had no doubt that it would be decided immediately, in a different manner; and notwithstanding all the weight added to an opinion by the names abovementioned, are unable to change our first view of the matter.

Lotteries are considered as an immoral and injurious species of gambling, and are therefore positively forbidden in many of the states, unless when consent has been had of their legislatures. This does not (as the opinion alluded to asserts,) *alter* the transferability of the tickets, for Congress legislating only for the District of Columbia, can only there make it lawful to sell tickets: but if it had this effect, we are utterly unable to see why the state is unable to make a general law relating to lotteries. Suppose Congress should authorize the corporation of Washington to raise money by keeping Faro tables, or by the sale of slaves; would the state laws against gambling and slavery be abrogated so far as they may interfere with these objects? We should not consider the liberties of the people, or the authority of the states, as safe, if such a construction of the constitution could be carried into effect.

One of the northern papers, speaking of the practice of smuggling on that frontier, states that the laws are entirely inefficient to prevent it, and that only public opinion can be the corrective. This is the first time we have heard that violations of the revenue laws were so common in any part of the United States, as to cease to be infamous. We should except the traffic in slaves carried on in the southern parts of Georgia, &c. In this part of the republic, public opinion makes no difference between the smuggler and the *private cheat.* This subject will probably attract much attention, and we shall be able to see how far the evil extends. If smuggling exist now, what can we expect should high duties be laid on foreign commodities?

Mr. Samuel Woodworth, "late editor of the Ladies' Literary Cabinet," has issued proposals for a work which he calls the Poet's Prompter, which will supply *rhymes for all subjects,* and answer at the same time as a dictionary of quotations, and a dissertation upon the manner in which poetry ought to be written. Some of the New York editors think it will be no less useful as an assistant to the writers in prose.

Our readers will perceive by an extract of a letter from Paris of the 31st August, that the French government show no symptoms of submitting to our attempt to force a free trade with them. We are inclined to believe that a little patience under the impolitic course of foreign nations, will be the most effectual means of teaching them their true interests. This legislative war excites animosity, and national pride will scarcely yield a point when thus assailed.

The reason given in the following extract from Berlin, for negotiating loans, is quite a new one: "Some public papers assert that the great Austrian loan compels other German states to negotiate similar loans, in order to prevent all the current coin from being taken out of the country. Thus Bavaria will negotiate a loan of 30,000,000 of florins."

We should be very glad if we could give our readers a just view of the state of affairs in South America, but are entirely unable to judge of the truth or falsehood of the great number of contradictory accounts constantly coming in. We have arrived at an almost universal scepticism as to news from that quarter.

Miscellany.

For the National Recorder.

APPRENTICES' LIBRARY.

I have lately had the pleasure of a conversation with a gentleman who was one of the most active in the establishment of the institution at Boston. He informs me that the library there is very much used by the apprentices, there being upwards of 700 applicants. The Life of Franklin is particularly sought for, and all their copies of it are generally in use, though they have 100! In consequence of the great number of boys to be accommodated, it is impossible to admit them into the room; they apply at the window, and sometimes a choice is made for them. Bibles are not given away, lest they should not be sufficiently valued; but any boy may have, beside the other books he gets from time to time, a Bible for one year, at the end of which time he returns it in good order and

takes it again. A very perceptible alteration in their habits has already taken place. Sunday is spent much more quietly than it formerly was. In consequence of an application for Euclid's Elements by a boy who did not look as if he could use it, an examination took place, by which it was discovered that he had a most surprising aptitude for mathematical investigations. How much may we not hope from an institution that thus offers to every one that mental food which is most congenial to him! Next month a library will be opened in New York. Four thousand volumes were collected some time ago, and the managers calculate confidently upon beginning with six thousand. There are several of the same kind in Maine. An attempt is about to be made to establish one in Baltimore, and will no doubt be successful. The happy influence of those already in operation, will shortly place them in every considerable town in the United States. Henry the Fourth said, that it was the greatest wish of his heart, that the time would arrive, when every peasant in his dominions might have a chicken for his Sunday's dinner; but it will be much more grateful to every lover of freedom and virtue and mankind, when every village in the United States has an *Apprentices' Library.*

FRANKLIN.

From the New Monthly Magazine.

On the Living Novelists.

GODWIN.

Mr. Godwin is the most original—not only of living novelists—but of living writers in prose. There are, indeed, very few authors of any age who are so clearly entitled to the praise of having produced works, the first perusal of which is a signal event in man's eternal history. His genius is by far the most extraordinary, which the great shaking of nations and of principles—the French revolution—impelled and directed in its progress. English literature, at the period of that marvellous change, had become sterile; the rich luxuriance which once overspread its surface, had gradually declined into thin and scattered productions of feeble growth and transient duration. The fearful convulsion which agitated the world of politics and of morals, tore up this shallow and exhausted surface—disclosed vast treasures which had been concealed for centuries—burst open the secret springs of imagination and of thought—and left, instead of the smooth and weary plain, a region of deep vallies and of shapeless hills, of new cataracts and of awful abysses, of spots blasted into everlasting barrenness, and regions of deepest and richest soil. Our author partook in the first enthusiasm of the spirit-stirring season—in "its pleasant exercise of hope and joy"—in much of its speculative extravagance, but in none of its practical excesses. He was roused not into action but into thought; and the high and undying energies of his soul, unwasted on vain efforts for the actual regeneration of man, gathered strength in those pure fields of meditation to which they were limited. The power which might have ruled the disturbed nations with the wildest, directed only to the creation of high theories and of marvellous tales, imparted to its works a stern reality, and a moveless grandeur, which never could spring from mere fantasy. His works are not like those which a man, who is endued with a deep sense of beauty, or a rare faculty of observation, or a sportive wit, or a breathing eloquence, may fabricate as the "idle business" of his life, as the means of profit or of fame. They have more in them of acts than of writings. They are the living and the immortal *deeds* of a man who must have been a great political adventurer had he not been an author. There is in "Caleb Williams" alone, the material—the real burning energy—which might have animated a hundred schemes for the weal or wo of the species.

No writer of fictions has ever succeeded so strikingly as Mr. Godwin, with so little adventitious aid. His works are neither gay creatures of the element, nor pictures of external life; they derive not their charm from the delusions of fancy, or the familiarities of daily habitude—and are as destitute of the fascinations of light satire and felicitous delineation of society, as they are of the magic of the Arabian tales. His style has "no figures and no fantasies," but is simple and austere. Yet his novels have a power which so enthrals us, that we half doubt, when we read them in youth, whether all our experience is not a dream, and these the only realities. He lays bare to us the innate might and majesty of man. He takes the simplest and most ordinary emotions of our nature, and makes us feel the springs of delight or of agony which they contain, the stupendous force which lies hid within them, and the sublime mysteries with which they are connected. He exhibits the naked wrestle of the passions in a vast solitude, where no object of material beauty disturbs our attention from

the august spectacle, and where the least beating of the heart is audible in the depth of the stillness. His works endow the abstractions of life with more of real presence, and make us more intensely conscious of existence, than any others with which we are acquainted. They give us a new feeling of the capacity of our nature for action or for suffering, make the currents of our blood mantle within us, and our bosoms heave with indistinct desires for the keenest excitements and the strangest perils. We feel as though we could live years in moments of energetic life, while we sympathize with his breathing characters. In things which before appeared indifferent, we discern sources of the fullest delight, or of the most intense anguish. The healthful breathings of the common air seem instinct with an unspeakable rapture. The most ordinary habits which link one season of life to another, become the awakers of thoughts and of remembrances "which do often lie too deep for tears." The nicest disturbances of the imagination make the inmost fibres of the being quiver with the most penetrating agonies. Passions which have not usually been thought worthy to agitate the soul, now first seem to have their own ardent beatings, and their swelling and tumultuous joys. We seem capable of a more vivid life, than we have ever before felt or dreamed of, and scarcely wonder that he who could thus give us a new sense of our own vitality, should have imagined that mind might become omnipotent over matter, and that he was able, by an effort of the will, to become corporeally immortal! The intensity of passion which is manifested in the novels of Godwin is of a very different kind from that which burns in the poems of a noble bard, whom he has been sometimes erroneously supposed to resemble. The former sets before us mightiest realities in clear vision; the latter embodies the phantoms of a feverish dream. The strength of Godwin is the pure energy of unsophisticated nature; that of lord Byron is the fury of disease. The grandeur of the last is derived from its transitoriness; that of the first from its eternal essence. The emotion in the poet receives no inconsiderable part of its force from its rebound from the dark rocks and giant barriers which seem to confine its rage within narrow boundaries; the feeling in the novelist is in its own natural current deep and resistless. The persons of the bard feel intensely, because they soon shall feel no more; those of the novelist glow, and kindle, and agonize, because they shall never perish. In the works of both, guilt is often associated with sublime energy; but how dissimilar are the impressions which they leave on the spirit! Lord Byron strangely blends the moral degradation with the intellectual majesty; so that goodness appears tame, and crime only is honoured and exalted. Godwin, on the other hand, only teaches us bitterly to mourn the evil which has been cast on a noble nature, and to regard the energy of the character not as inseparably linked with vice, but as destined ultimately to subdue it. He makes us every where feel that crime is not the native heritage, but the accident, of the species of which we are members. He impresses us with the immortality of virtue; and while he leaves us painfully to regret the stains which the most gifted and energetic characters contract amidst the pollutions of time, he inspires us with hope that these shall pass away for ever. We drink in unshaken confidence in the good and the true, which is ever of more value than hatred or contempt for the evil!

"Caleb Williams," the earliest, is also the most popular of our author's romances, not because his latter works have been less rich in sentiment and passion, but because they are, for the most part, confined to the development of single characters; while in this there is the opposition and death-grapple of two beings, each endowed with poignant sensibilities and quenchless energy. There is no work of fiction which more rivets the soul—no tragedy which exhibits a struggle more sublime, or sufferings more intense, than this; yet to produce the effect, no complicated machinery is employed, but the springs of action are few and simple. The motives are at once common and elevated, and are purely intellectual, without appearing for an instant inadequate to their mighty issues. Curiosity, for instance, which generally seems a low and ignoble motive for scrutinizing the secrets of a man's life, here seizes with strange fascination on a gentle and ingenuous spirit, and supplies it with excitement as fervent, and snatches of delight as precious and as fearful, as those feelings create which we are accustomed to regard as alone worthy to enrapture or to agitate. The involuntary recurrence by Williams to the string of frenzy in the soul of one whom he would die to serve—the workings of his tortures on the heart of Falkland till they wring confidence from him—and the net thenceforth spread over the path of the youth like an invisible spell by his agonized master,

surprising as they are, arise from causes so natural and so adequate, that the imagination at once owns them as authentic. The mild beauty of Falkland's natural character, contrasted with the guilt he has incurred, and his severe purpose to lead a long life of agony and crime, that his fame may be preserved spotless, is affecting almost without example. There is a rude grandeur even in the gigantic oppressor Tyrel, which all his disgusting enormities cannot destroy. Independently of the master-spring of interest, there are in this novel individual passages which can never be forgotten. Such are the fearful flight of Emily with her ravisher—the escape of Caleb Williams from prison, and his enthusiastic sensations on the recovery of his freedom, though wounded and almost dying without help—and the scenes of his peril among the robbers. Perhaps this work is the grandest ever constructed out of the simple elements of humanity, without any intrinsic aid from imagination, wit, or memory.

In "St. Leon," Mr. Godwin has sought the stores of the supernatural; but the "metaphysical aid" which he has condescended to accept is not adapted to carry him farther from nature, but to insure a more intimate and wide communion with its mysteries. His hero does not acquire the philosopher's stone and the elixir of immortality to furnish out for himself a dainty solitude, where he may dwell, soothed with the music of his own undying thoughts, and rejoicing in his severance from his frail and transitory fellows. Apart from those among whom he moves, his yearnings for sympathy become more intense as it eludes him, and his perceptions of the mortal lot of his species become more vivid and more fond, as he looks on it from an intellectual eminence which is alike unassailable to death and to joy. Even in this work, where the author has to conduct a perpetual miracle, his exceeding earnestness makes it difficult to believe him a fabulist. Listen to his hero, as he expatiates in the first consciousness of his high prerogatives:

"I surveyed my limbs, all the joints and articulations of my frame, with curiosity and astonishment. 'What!' exclaimed I, these limbs, this complicated but brittle frame, shall last for ever! No disease shall attack it; no pain shall seize it; death shall withhold from it for ever his abhorred grasp! Perpetual vigour, perpetual activity, perpetual youth, shall take up their abode with me! Time shall generate in me no decay, shall not add a wrinkle to my brow, or convert a hair of my head to gray! This body was formed to die; this edifice to crumble into dust; the principles of corruption and mortality are mixed up in every atom of my frame. But for me the laws of nature are suspended, the eternal wheels of the universe roll backward; I am destined to be triumphant over Fate and Time! Months, years, cycles, centuries! To me these are but as indivisible moments. I shall never become old; I shall always be, as it were, in the porch and infancy of existence; no lapse of years shall subtract any thing from my future duration. I was born under Louis the Twelfth; the life of Francis the First now threatens a speedy termination; he will be gathered to his fathers, and Henry his son will succeed him. But what are princes, and kings, and generations of men, to me? I shall become familiar with the rise and fall of empires; in a little while the very name of France, my country, will perish from off the face of the earth, and men will dispute about the situation of Paris, as they dispute about the site of ancient Nineveh, and Babylon, and Troy. Yet I shall still be young. I shall take my most distant posterity by the hand; I shall accompany them in their career; and, when they are worn out and exhausted, shall shut up the tomb over them, and set forward.'"

This is a strange tale, but it tells like a true one! When we first read it, it seemed as though it had itself the power of alchemy to steal into our veins, and render us capable of resisting death and age. For a short—too short! a space, all time seemed opened to our personal view—we felt no longer as of yesterday; but the grandest parts of our knowledge of the past seemed mightiest recollections of a far-off childhood:

"The wars we too remembered of King Nine,
And old Assaracus, and Ibycus divine."

This was the happy extravagance of an hour; but it is ever the peculiar power of Mr. Godwin to make us feel that there is something within us which cannot perish!

"Fleetwood" has less of our author's characteristic energy than any other of his works. The earlier parts of it, indeed, where the formation of the hero's character, in free rovings amidst the wildest of nature's scenery, is traced, have a deep beauty which reminds us of some of the holiest imaginations of Wordsworth. But when the author would follow him into the world—through the frolics of college, the dissipations of Paris, and the petty disqui-

etudes of matrimonial life—we feel that he has condescended too far. He is no graceful trifler; he cannot work in these frail and low materials. There is, however, one scene in this novel most wild and fearful. This is where Fleetwood, who has long brooded in anguish over the idea of his wife's falsehood, keeps strange festival on his wedding-day—when, having procured a waxen image of her whom he believes perfidious, and dressed a frightful figure in a uniform to represent her imagined paramour, he locks himself in an apartment with these horrid counterfeits, a supper of cold meats, and a barrel-organ, on which he plays the tunes often heard from the pair he believes guilty, till his silent agony gives place to delirium; he gazes around with glassy eyes, sees strange sights, and dallies with frightful mockeries, and at last tears the dreadful spectacle to atoms, and is seized with furious madness. We do not remember, even in the works of our old dramatists, any thing of its kind comparable to this voluptuous fantasy of despair.

"Mandeville" has all the power of its author's earliest writings; but its main subject—the development of an engrossing and maddening hatred—is not one which can excite human sympathy. There is, however, a bright relief to the gloom of the picture, in the sweet and angelic disposition of Clifford, and the sparkling loveliness of Henrietta, who appears "full of life, and splendour, and joy." All Mr. Godwin's chief female characters have a certain airiness and radiance—a light, visionary grace, peculiar to them, which may at first surprise by their contrast to the robustness of his masculine creations. But it will perhaps be found that the more deeply man is conversant with the energies and the stern grandeur of his own heart, the more will he seek for opposite qualities in women.

Of all Mr. Godwin's writings, the choicest in point of style is a little essay "on Sepulchres." Here his philosophic thought, subdued and sweetened by the contemplation of mortality, is breathed forth in the gentlest tone. His "Political Justice," with all the extravagance of its first edition, or with all the inconsistencies of its last, is a noble work, replete with lofty principle and thought, and often leading to the most striking results by a process of the severest reasoning. Man, indeed, cannot and ought not to act universally on its leading doctrine—that we should in all things seek only the greatest amount of good without favour or affection; but it is at least better than the low selfishness of the world. It breathes also a mild and cheerful faith in the progressive advances and the final perfection of the species. It was not this good hope for humanity which excited Mr. Malthus to affirm, that there is in the constitution of man's nature a perpetual barrier to any grand or extensive improvement in his earthly condition. After a long interval, Mr. Godwin has announced a reply to this popular system—a system which reduces man to an animal, governed by blind instinct, and destitute of reason, sentiment, imagination and hope, whose most mysterious instincts are matter of calculation to be estimated by rules of geometrical series!—Most earnestly do we desire to witness his success. To our minds, indeed, he sufficiently proves the falsehood of his adversary's doctrines by his own intellectual character. His works are, in themselves, evidences that there is power and energy in man which have never yet been fully brought into action, and which were not given to the species in vain. He has lived himself in the soft and mild light of those pure and unstained years, which he believes shall hereafter bless the world, when force and selfishness shall disappear, and love and joy shall be the unerring lights of the species. T. D.

☞ We refer the reader to the work of Mr. Malthus for proof that it is here misrepresented.

THE PROMPTER—NO. X.

It will do for the present.—Part II.

Custom, with an iron rod, rules four-fifths of mankind. My *father* planted corn on a certain piece of land—it answered well—*I* do the same, though it does *not* answer well. My neighbour such a one tells me that I had better try a change of crops, deep ploughing, or sowing turnips or clover; it may be the land will recruit; but my neighbour is notional and fond of *new things*. *I* do not like projects. My father did so before me, and *it does for the present*.

So says the Virginia planter; he has raised tobacco on a field, until the soil is exhausted; he knows not how to fertilize the land again; his only resource is to clear a new spot and take the benefit of nature's manure. *This does for the present.* But when his land is *all* impoverished, what will he do? Go to Kentucky; as the New England men to Genesee. But when the western world is all peopled, what will ou

do for the present folks do for good land? The answer is easy; necessity will compel them to use *common sense;* and common sense will soon make old poor land rich again. When farmers learn *to work it right,* they will keep it good, for the Prompter ventures to assert, that a *proper tillage* will for ever keep land good. How does nature *work it?* Why nature covers land with herbage; that herbage withers and rots upon the land; and gradually forms a rich black mould. But farmers, when they have used land till it will bear *no crops,* let it lie without feeding it. No herbage grows on the land, till the weeds and a little grass creep in by chance; after three or four years, the farmer ploughs it for a crop, and has a job at killing weeds. Surely the man *does not work it right;* but he says, *this will do for the present.*

But no *body* is so apt to put off things with, *it will do for the present,* as *corporate bodies.* If the navigation of a river wants improvement, the *public body,* that is, *any body, every body,* and *no body,* immediately exclaims, "how did our *fathers* get along? The river did well enough for *them—it must do for the present.*" If a bad law exists, by which the *public money* is to be collected in the *worst manner* that can be imagined; or if a constitution is defective, in permitting the same men to be *makers* and *judges* of a law; or the same men to rejudge a cause in a *higher* court, which they have before judged in a *lower* court; or which makes a legislature of two hundred men, a supreme court, to review the decisions of all inferior courts, and reverse their judgments; or if a constitution has *no executive at all,* and a *judiciary power* dependent on the annual votes of two hundred men, which is little better than *none;* I say, if a man proposes any reformation in those particulars, the public body says, away with your *projects; let us go on in the good old way: it will do for the present.* So in little public bodies, a town or a city, the poor must be provided for, bridges must be built, roads must be repaired—How? By a tax, or by labour. Is it best to raise money enough this year to pay the town debt? No, says the town. We will raise *almost* enough; *this will do for the present.* Let a little debt accrue every year, till the whole will make a *shilling tax,* and pay the whole at once. Put off, put off, says the town. *And so says the sinner.*

A bridge must be built. Is it best to build a good one; of stone, or some materials that will last? No, it will cost *more,* says the town; a wooden bridge *will do for the present.* The water may carry it away; it will decay, and somebody may break his neck by the fall; but no matter, *it must do for the present.*

I will close with the following short, but pertinent letter, which I have lately received from an unknown hand.

TO THE PROMPTER.

Sir—In your last number do you mean me? A. B.

TO A. B.

Sir—I *do,* and all that are like you between *A* and *Z;* and you have not on earth a better friend than the PROMPTER.

LECTURES.

We note, with much pleasure, the annunciation of several courses of public lectures, to be delivered in this city, during the present winter, on subjects which do not fall within the common academic education. Nothing is more desirable than that hours of liberal occupation in the intervals of scholastic tuition or professional training, should be furnished at a moderate cost to our youth between the ages of twelve and twenty. It is the duty of parents to enable their children, if this be in their power, to improve the opportunities of instruction thus afforded; and it should be recollected that the benefit of frequenting such lectures does not consist merely in the elegant and solid information which they communicate. They gradually effect a general refinement of taste, as to intellectual pursuits, and incite the youthful mind to wide and elevated inquiries in kindred branches of knowledge. They tend to withdraw from the common walks of dissipation, and confirm in habits of beneficial employment, those who, in a large city, are particularly exposed to vicious and sauntering fellowship. It is not only the youth of both sexes, who may derive profit from them. Persons of mature age, embarked in business and the ordinary callings of life, may refresh at the same fountain their early tastes and studies; or they may supply the deficiencies which chance or limited opportunities had left in their first education.

The public courses to which we have alluded, are those of professor Patterson (on Natural Philosophy) the Rev. Dr. Abercrombie (on Oratory) and Mr. Darby (on the Geography and History of the United States).

With respect to the value and beauty of professor Patterson's lectures, too much

could not be said. They are well known to be entitled to every recommendation which the finest elocution, the utmost neatness in experiment, and a mastery of the science taught, on the part of the lecturer, would authorize us to bestow. He has always, we believe, in his previous courses, had a large class of both sexes, and it is to be expected, that the case will be the same on the present occasion.

Dr. Abercrombie is an experienced lecturer, whose success, heretofore, in the same career, attests his ability. He unites with his regular precepts an oratory drawn from the best sources, practical lessons in the *arts of reading and speaking*. His course appeals so directly to the business interests of all who would be distinguished at the bar or in our deliberative assemblies, that it cannot, we apprehend, fail to be numerously attended.

Mr. Darby has considerable and deserved celebrity for his publications on the geography of the United States. He is extensively versed in this subject, and may be presumed to have a correspondent acquaintance with our history, on which also he proposes to lecture. He delivered, the last winter, at New York, a course similar to that which he now offers to Philadelphia. Of his manner and skill as a lecturer, we know nothing from personal observation, but we have understood that he gave, on the whole, great satisfaction at New York, to hearers, upon whose judgment full reliance might be placed. Geography and history in general, form a primary concern in the culture of the understanding, at whatever age: those of our own country are the first in importance, as they should be in order—judicious direction in the study of them is useful, if not indispensable; they are susceptible of abstract and philosophical views which may greatly facilitate progress in them, and which can be possessed only by one who has dwelt intently upon them in their *ensemble* and all their details.

As we are on the subject of public lectures, we will venture to intimate our regret at two circumstances: 1. That the courses of Anatomy and Chemistry in the Medical School of the University of Pennsylvania are not more followed—as they might be with great advantage—by youth designed for whatever liberal vocation:—2. That Philadelphia is without a general establishment for popular lectures in the leading branches of the moral and physical sciences, and in polite literature. A considerable proportion of our readers have heard, no doubt, of the Athenæum of Paris, with which professorships are connected so as to make it a rendezvous of the literary and fashionable world, for the purpose not merely of seeking entertainment in magazines and newspapers, but listening to able and elegant expositions of the annals and merits of domestic and foreign literature, and the principles and progress of science. This is independent of the splendid universities of that capital, and belongs, as it were, to the improvement of general society. Philadelphia possesses an Athenæum so called, highly creditable to the spirit of its founders, well constituted as far as it extends, and managed with much judgment and liberality. But it is confined within the character of a mere reading room. How much more useful and honourable to the city, how much more attractive and profitable to strangers, it would be, if assimilated more to the Parisian institution of the same name, we scarcely need remark. And there would be no great difficulty in placing it on a like footing, could the value and repute of such an arrangement be impressed on the public mind so as to win a pecuniary provision for the cost of the proper edifice, and the endowment of the chairs with a moderate stipend during the first sessions.

Considering her populousness, ample wealth, intelligence, and mental culture, Philadelphia in the aggregate has done but little for letters—she has reared no adult seminaries of learning; created no bank of deposit and circulation for liberal science. It is in her power, by giving her university a better organization and support, and enlarging her Athenæum into a temple such as we have indicated, to become in reality "the Athens of America;" to draw to herself annually from all parts of the United States, a crowd of votaries seeking to perfect an incomplete, or repair a deficient education. The emolument and celebrity which she has derived from her medical school, show how sensibly her interests would be promoted by an emulation of Edinburgh, as to her kindred establishments for philosophy, history and criticism. Nearly as great numbers have been attracted, and as much lustre has accrued, to the Scottish capital, by the chairs for general learning as those for medical education. The several faculties sustain each other, and together assure the presence of a multitude of followers, who enrich and vivify the city while they remain in it, and finally diffuse its fame throughout the world.

[*Nat. Gaz.*

A paper in New York state contains an advertisement by some person who has not sufficient steadiness to take care of himself, forbidding all persons to sell any spirituous liquors to him, on pain of having their names exposed to the public!

The celebrated Law School at Litchfield (Con.) is now under the care of judge Gould alone, judge Reeve, his venerable associate in the duty of delivering lectures, having retired from all concern in the management of the school, on account of his great age.

The ex-king of Norway, prince Christian Frederick of Denmark, is leading a literary life in Italy. He lately read a dissertation on Mount Vesuvius at a meeting of the Academy of Sciences at Naples.

Count Lasteyrie is publishing at his lithographic press in Paris, a series of plates to illustrate the machines, instruments, utensils, constructions, apparatus, &c. employed in rural and domestic economy, according to designs from various parts of Europe.

M. Cuvier, in a late discussion in the chamber of deputies observed, that elementary instruction was for the most part given gratuitously, or at a very small expense, in France. That 1,070,500 children learn at this moment to read and write in the minor schools, under the care of 28000 masters: and that 46,900 youths are admitted into the colleges, each paying a small tax of from 15 to 40 francs to the state.

Poetry.

FROM THE BOSTON REVIEW.

Sure, to the mansions of the blest,
When infant innocence ascends,
Some angel, brighter than the rest,
The spotless spirit's flight attends.

On wings of ecstacy they rise,
Beyond where worlds material roll;
Till some fair sister of the skies,
Receives the unpolluted soul.

There, at the Almighty Father's hand,
Nearest the thrones of living light,
The choir of infant seraphs stand,
And dazzling shine where all is bright.

Chained for a dreary length of years
Down to these elements below,
Some stain the sky-born spirit bears,
Contracted from this world of wo.

That inextinguishable beam,
With dust united at our birth;
Sheds a more dim discoloured gleam,
The more it lingers upon earth.

Closed in this dark abode of clay,
The stream of glory faintly burns;
Nor unobscured, the lucid ray,
To its own native fount returns.

But when the Lord of mortal breath,
Decrees his bounty to resume,
And points the silent shaft of death,
Which speeds an infant to the tomb,

No passion fierce, no low desire,
Has quenched the radiance of the flame—
Back to its God the living fire
Reverts, unclouded as it came.

Oh, Anna! be that solace thine:
Let hope her healing charms impart
And sooth, with melodies divine,
The anguish of a mother's heart.

Oh! think the darlings of thy love,
Divested of this earthly clod,
Amid unnumbered saints above,
Bask in the bosom of their God.

Of their short pilgrimage on earth,
Still tender images remain;
Still, still, they bless thee for their birth,
Still filial gratitude retain.

The days of pain, the nights of care,
The bosom's agonizing strife,
The pangs which thou for them didst bear,
No! they forget them not with life.

Scarce could their germing thought conceive,
While in this vale of tears they dwelt,
Scarce their fond sympathy relieve,
The sufferance thou for them hast felt.

But there the soul's perennial flower,
Expands in never fading bloom:
Spurns at the grave's poor transient hour,
And shoots immortal from the tomb.

No weak unform'd idea, there,
Toils, the mere promise of a mind;
The tide of intellect flows clear,
Strong, full, unchanging, and refined.

Each anxious care, each rending sigh,
That wrung for them the parent's breast;
Dwells on remembrance in the sky,
Amid the raptures of the blest.

O'er thee, with looks of love they bend,
For thee, the Lord of life implore;
And oft from sainted bliss descend,
Thy wounded quiet to restore.

Oft in the stillness of the night,
They smooth the pillow for thy bed;
Oft till the sun's returning light,
Still watchful hover o'er thy head.

Hark! in such strains as saints employ,
They whisper to thy bosom peace—
Calm the perturbed heart to joy,
And bid the streaming sorrow cease.

Then dry henceforth the bitter tear,
Their part and thine inverted see;
Thou wert their guardian angel here,
They're guardian angels now to thee.

From the New York Evening Post.

There is an hour of solemn gloom
Which hangs the happiest bosom o'er;
In which e'en beauty's fairest bloom
And love's soft raptures joy no more;
An hour, in which the lonely heart
No passion feels save that of grief,
When gushing tears unbidden start
And give the anguished soul relief.

'Tis when we view the sable bier,
On which our early friends are laid,
'Tis when the last sad rites we hear,
The requiem o'er their reliques said;
'Tis when in death we see reposed
The form which beamed celestial fire,
The eye in dark oblivion closed
Which flashed on foes its vengeance dire.

'Tis when we see the holy heart
Which beat to glory's call and love,
At honour's voice no longer start,
Nor at the glance of beauty move;
'Tis when that heart which beat for us
With friendship's purest, holiest flame,
Pulseless; alas! the hallowed dust
No longer hails that sacred name.

Each high wrought deed of gen'rous worth,
With honour's fairest form impressed,
Of him who, pillowed low in dust,
On cold sod takes his 'wakeless rest,'
Each generous act of friendship dear,
Pass bright before our mental eye,
Claiming the tribute of a tear
For him who dwells beyond the sky.

'Tis when we feel the cords are burst,
Which bound in one our kindred minds;
'Tis when we feel that we are dust,
Our life but as the fleeting winds;
But still one hope the bosom cheers
By deep regret and sorrow riven:
When we have passed this vale of tears,
That we shall meet again in Heaven. CONNAL.

New Rape of the Lock.

Last night as o'er the page of Love's despair,
My Delia bent deliciously to grieve,
I stood a treacherous loiterer by her chair,
And drew the *fatal scissors* from my sleeve.

She heard the steel her beauteous lock divide,
And whilst my heart with transport panted big,
She cast a fury frown on me, and cried,
'You stupid puppy, you have spoiled my *wig*.'

Foreign Science.

*Experiments on the Effect of the Pressure of the Sea at great Depths, in augmenting the Specific Gravity of different kinds of Wood. By William Scoresby, jun. F. R. S. Edin. and M. W. S.**

At great depths, the effect of the pressure of the sea is not a little curious. My father met with the following singular instance, in the year 1794, which I have taken from his log-book.

On the 31st of May, the chief mate of the Henrietta of Whitby, the ship my father then commanded, struck a whale, which "ran" all the lines out of the boat before assistance arrived, and then dragged the boat under water, the men meanwhile escaping to a piece of ice. When the fish returned to the surface to "blow," it was struck a second time, and soon afterwards killed. The moment it expired, it began to sink, which not being an usual circumstance, excited some surprise. My father, who was himself assisting at the capture, observing the circumstance, seized a grapnel, fastened a rope to it, threw it over the tail of the fish, and fortunately hooked it. It continued to sink; but the line being held fast in the boat, at length stopped it, though not till the "strain" was such that the boat was in danger of sinking. The "bight" or loop of a rope being then passed round the fish, and allowed to drop below it, enclosed the line belonging to the sunken boat, which was found to be the cause of the phenomenon observed. Immediately the harpoon slipped out of the whale, and was, with the line and boat attached to it, on the point of being lost, when it was luckily caught by the encompassing rope. The fish being then relieved from the weight of the line and boat, rose to the surface; and the strain was transferred to the boat connected with the disengaged harpoon. My father, imagining that the sunken boat was entangled among rocks at the bottom of the sea, and that the action of a current on the line produced the extraordinary stress, proceeded himself to assist in hauling up the boat. The strain upon the line he estimated at not less than three-fourths of a ton, the utmost power of twenty-five men being requisite to overcome the weight. The laborious operation of hauling the line in, occupied several hours, the weight continuing nearly the same throughout. The sunken boat, which, before the accident, would have been buoyant though full of water, when it came to the surface required a boat at each end to keep it from sinking. "When it was hoisted into the ship, the paint came off the wood in large sheets,

* This very interesting article forms part of Mr. Scoresby's valuable and amusing work on the Arctic Regions. Through the kindness of the author, we are enabled to present our readers with his curious experiments on the effects of the pressure of the sea at great depths; but for many additional and important details, we must refer them to the original work—*Ed. Philos. Journal.*

and the planks, which were of wainscot, were as completely soaked in every pore, as if they had lain at the bottom of the sea since the flood." A wooden apparatus that accompanied the boat in its progress through the deep, consisting chiefly of a piece of thick deal, about fifteen inches square, happened to fall overboard, and though it originally consisted of the lightest fir, sunk in the water like a stone. The boat was rendered useless; even the wood of which it was built, on being offered to the cook as fuel, was tried and rejected as incombustible.

This curious circumstance induced me to make some experiments on the subject. I accordingly attached some pieces of fir, elm, and hickory, containing two cubical inches of wood each, to the marine diver, and sent them to the depth of 4000 feet. Pieces of wood, corresponding with each of these in shape and weight, were immersed in a bucket of sea water, during the time the marine diver and its attached pieces were under water, by the way of distinguishing the degree of impregnation produced by pressure, from the absorption which takes place from simple immersion. On being brought up, they were all specifically heavier than sea water; and, when compared with the counterparts, the clear effect of impregnation by pressure was found to be 302 grains in the fir and hickory, and 316 grains in the ash. This experiment was repeated in latitude 78° 2′, on the 7th June, 1817, by the immersion of twelve articles of different shapes and sizes, to the depth of 4566 feet. On this occasion, the apparatus was thirty minutes on its way down, rested 40 minutes, and took 36 minutes in drawing up, being altogether 106 minutes under water. The degree of impregnation produced on each of the different substances used in this experiment, is stated in the following table:

Names of Substances.	Shape.	Solid contents	Specific gravity after immersion.	Proportion of wt. gained per cubic inch by pressure.
		Cub. In.	W60° 1000	Dra. Av.
Hickory	Wedge	1.4436	1.1760	4.606
Elm	Rect. prism	2.0040	1.1321	5.639
Beech	Ditto	2.0040	1.1806	4.790
Fir	Thin wedg.	0.9505	1.1168	4.050
Mahogany	Parallelop.	0.8792	1.0523	3.071
Lign. Vitæ	Rect. prism	1.9356	1.3315	0.336
Bone	Ditto	0.1380	2.1372	0.725

This degree of impregnation is not surprising, when we consider that the pressure of water, at the depth to which these specimens of wood were sent, is equal to at least 2031 lbs. or 18 cwt. 15 lbs. on every square inch of surface.

These experiments were repeated on the 18th July, 1818. Finding, on former trials, that pieces of fir wood sent down 4000 feet, were more impregnated with sea water than others immersed only half that depth, I was in hopes that the degree of impregnation of similar pieces of the same kind of wood might be applicable as a measure of depth. If this were the case, it would serve a very valuable purpose, since all the plans hitherto contrived for measuring depths from a vessel, when sailing slowly, or drifting through the water, cease to be useful beyond 200 or 300 fathoms. With this view, I not only attached pieces of wood of different kinds to the lead, and provided counterparts for immersion in a bucket of water, but I also fastened cubes of ash, from the same piece of timber, of about one inch solid contents, and of exactly the same weight to the line, at intervals of about 500 feet; by the weight of which, when taken up, I could ascertain whether the increase of specific gravity was in any way proportionate to the depth. When the specimens of wood for this experiment were procured, a clear grained piece of double the size wanted for sending under water, was prepared, and then cut in two, and the two parts dressed to the same shape, and to within a quarter of a grain of the same weight: one of these was then adopted as a principal, and fixed to the lead or line; and the other as a counterpart, and put into a bucket of water. The specimens affixed to the lead were eleven in number, and consisted of wood of different kinds, shapes, and dimensions: they were sunk to the depth of 6348 feet, and the line was almost perpendicular for nearly an hour.

Each piece of wood attached to the line was taken off as hauled in, plunged in a basin of water, and conveyed into the cabin, where its weight in air and in fresh water was immediately taken. The interval between any two pieces was such, that I had just time to determine the specific gravity of one, before the next came up. On the arrival of the lead, the attached specimens were immediately immersed in water, and weighed as quickly as possible, together with their counterparts, which had been secured at the bottom of a bucket of sea water during the time the experiment was in progress.

The following table exhibits the results of this experiment:

N.	Quality.	Shape.	Experiments on the Counterparts, immersed three hours in a bucket of water.					Experiments on Wood, immersed during two or three hours at various depths in the sea.							
			Weight in Air.	Weight in Water, with a load of 880 gr.	Weight of an eq. bulk of Fr. Wa. Temp. 60°.	Solid contents.	Specific gravity.	Depth.	Weight in Air.	Weight in Fresh Water, Temp. 60°.	Weight of an eq. bulk of Pu. Wa. Temp 60°.	Solid contents.	Specific gravity.	Increase of Weight by pressure.	Proportion of Weight gained per cubic inch.
I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	XI.	XII.	XIII.	XIV.	XV.	XVI.
			Grains.	Grains.	Grains.	Cub. Inch.		Feet.	Grains.	Grains.	Grains.	Cub. Inch.		Grains.	Grains.
1	Ash	Cube	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	6348	278	40	238	0.943	1.168	121	128
2	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	5868	290	41	249	0.986	1.165	133	135
3	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	5370	283	40	243	0.963	1.165	126	131
4	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	4836	278	39	239	0.947	1.163	121	128
5	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	4284	288	38	250	0.990	1.152	131	132
6	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	3708	286	39	247	0.978	1.158	129	132
7	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	3198	280	37	243	0.962	1.152	123	128
8	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	2628	277	39	238	0.943	1.164	120	127
9	——	——	157	797	240	0.951	0.654	2058	289	35	254	1.006	1.138	132	132
10	——	Parallelo.	252	743	389	1.541	0.648	6348	493	73	420	1.663	1.174	241	145
11	——	Cube	318	723	475	1.881	0.669	6348	593	88	505	2.000	1.174	275	137
12	——	——	318	723	475	1.881	0.669	3708	594	88	506	2.004	1.174	276	138
13	——	——	449	625	704	2.788	0.638	6348	868	127	741	2.934	1.171	419	143
14	——	——	606	537	949	3.758	0.639	6348	1188	177	1011	4.004	1.175	582	145
15	——	——	606	537	949	3.758	0.639	4836	1180	173	1007	3.988	1.172	574	144
16	Fir	Rect. pris.	220	631	469	1.857	0.473	6348	534	40	494	1.956	1.081	314	161
17	Oak	——	350	758	472	1.870	0.720	6348	589	92	497	1.968	1.185	239	121
18	Hickory	——	407	849	438	1.734	0.929	6348	614	119	495	1.960	1.240	207	106
19	Teak	——	370	777	473	1.873	0.782	6348	574	94	480	1.900	1.196	204	107
20	Elm	——	289	752	417	1.651	0.693	6348	538	54	484	1.917	1.112	249	129
21	Cork	Cylinder.	49	711	218	0.863	0.225	6348	86	—94	180	0.713	0.478	37	52

From this table we may observe, that the greatest increase of specific gravity, by pressure, in the specimens of the different kinds of wood submitted to experiment, was obtained by the fir; the next greatest by the ash; the next by the elm; the next by the oak; the next by the teak; the next by the hickory; and the least by the mahogany. The cork gained still less than any of the pieces of wood. The proportion of impregnation of the same kind of wood, in specimens of different sizes and shapes, is derived from the experiments made on the ash; and it is curious to observe, that the largest cube of ash, No. 14, and the parallelopipedon of the same, No. 10, received the greatest proportional increase of weight; while the smaller pieces received less and less additional weight, per cubic inch, as they decreased in size. Thus, No. 14, containing about 4 solid inches of wood, gained 145 grains per cubic inch; No. 13, of about 3 solid inches, gained 143 grains per cubic inch; No. 11, of 2 solid inches, gained 137 grains per inch; and the specimens of 1 inch, solid contents, gained from 127 to 135 grains. It is also a little curious, that the specimens sent to the depth of 2058 feet, were as much impregnated as those sent down above 6000 feet. The cube of ash, No. 11, consisting of 2 solid inches of wood, gained 137 grains per inch, at the depth of 6348 feet, while a similar specimen gained 138 grains, at the inferior depth of 3708 feet. In the same way, a cube of 4 solid inches gained 145 grains per inch, at the extreme depth; and 144 grains per inch, at the depth of 4836 feet. The degree of impregnation of the one-inch cubes of ash, produced by immersion to the depth of 2058 feet to 6348 feet, varies irregularly, but is evidently as great at the depth of 2058 feet, as under any superior pressure; so that it is probable that the greatest permanent impregnation by pressure, of such open grained woods as ash, elm, fir, &c. is produced at the depth of 300 or 400 fathoms. Hence, it is clear that no use can be made of this effect of pressure, for determining the depth, unless it be within 2000 feet of the surface; and even in this limit, the results may be uncertain.

From a comparison of column VII. with XIII., and column IV. with XV., it appears, that an effect of the impregnation of the wood with sea water, was to increase its dimensions, as well as its specific gravity; each specimen, on an average, having swelled 0.05 cubic inch in every solid inch of original dimensions, and gained 84 grains on every 100 grains of original weight; that is, an increase of one-twentieth in size, and twenty-one twenty-fifths in weight.

I have little doubt, but the degree of impregnation always increases with the increase of pressure; but the air contained in the pores of the wood, which is never wholly disengaged, exerting an expansive force when the load of pressure is removed, forces part of the water out again. This was clearly discernible in some of the specimens used in the foregoing experiments, at the moment they were hauled up, their surfaces being covered with a thin pellicle of froth. Hence pieces of fir sometimes become buoyant, after being a few hours relieved from pressure, though kept constantly under water; but all other kinds of wood yet tried, though they lose a little of their moisture, yet remain specifically heavier than water, as long as they are kept immersed. Blocks of wood, indeed, are now in my possession, that were soaked with sea water in the year 1817, and yet remain, at the bottom of a vessel of water, nearly as heavy as when first drawn up out of the sea.

The degree of pressure at the depth to which I sounded in my last experiment, is not a little astonishing, being, under a column of water, 6348 feet in length, at least 2823 lbs. or 25 cwt. 23 lbs. on one square inch of surface. Hence on the larger cubes of ash used in the experiment, though measuring only 1.59 inches in diameter, the whole pressure must have exceeded nineteen tons!

It appears by a note in the 16th No. of the Journal of the Royal Institution of London, that the pyrolignous acid was known as early as 1661, and also its property of converting minium into sugar of lead.

New Alkalies.—Two new vegetable alkalies have been discovered by French chemists; which they have named *Brucine* and *Delphine*. The first is found in what the discoverers (Pelletier and Caventou) call false Angustura bark (breccea antidysenterica). It crystallizes in oblique quadrangular prisms, colourless and transparent. It dissolves in 500 parts of boiling water. Its taste is exceedingly acrid and bitter. Administered in a dose of a few grains, it is poisonous. It forms neutral salts and bisalts, which crystallize with facility. *Delphine* was obtained by Lassaigne and Feneulle from the seeds of staves-acre (delphinum staphysagria). It is crystalline when wet, but becomes opaque as it dries. Its taste is acrid and bitter. It

melts by heat, and becomes hard and resinous. It is not very soluble in water. It forms neutral salts with the acids.

Count de Romanzow is fitting out at his own expense, an expedition which is to pass over the ice from Asia to America, to the north of Behring's straits; and to ascend one of the rivers which disembogue on the western coast in Russian America, in order to penetrate into the unknown tracts that lie between Icy Cape and the river Mackenzie.

New Hydraulic Machine.—Mr. Clymer has invented in London a pump of a simple construction, but powerful in its effects. It raises and discharges 250 or 300 gallons in a minute, not only of water but of stones and other hard substances, which are not too heavy. It is easy of transportation, and appears particularly well adapted to ships on account of its not being easily choaked, by sand, coffee, sugar, and other impediments.

An *Egyptian Society* has been formed in London, for the purpose of publishing lithographic prints of all the Egyptian monuments of architecture and sculpture, as well as of mummies and hieroglyphic inscriptions, in order, if possible, by a comparison of signs, to discover their meaning.

Lithographic printing has made a rapid progress in Russia. The plates illustrative of the journey of colonel Drouville in Persia, are of the finest execution. The designs are from the hand of M. Orlowsky, a distinguished artist of Petersburgh.

The iron masters of Sweden have granted to professor Berzelius an annuity of 500 crowns, for the services which he has rendered to the chemical arts.

Record.

The next session of Congress commences on Monday the 13th of the ensuing month. The National Intelligencer of Saturday last, contains an editorial article relative to some of the great questions expected to occupy the attention of the representatives of the nation; and we are truly glad to observe, that the editors set out in their exhibition with objecting to the practice of long speaking, which has latterly so much prevailed in Congress—and, happily, Messrs. Gales and Seaton have in themselves much power to suppress the practice; it being notorious that many speeches are made only for the newspapers, and are hardly listened to by half a dozen members in either house. It would be curious if some person in the gallery would take an account of the several occupations of the members when a *speechmaker* had the floor, and tell us how many were writing letters, how many reading newspapers, how many chatting at the fireplaces, &c. and how many apparently listening to what was said. When a debate is dragged out, like that on the Seminole war or the Missouri question, he is a lucky fellow in the House of Representatives who gets a dozen members to listen, occasionally, to what he says! But the right to speak is a very important one, and Heaven forbid that any regulation, except that of public opinion, should abridge it in either house of Congress; unless, when time presses and patience is worn out, it may be necessary to call for the "previous question."

The Missouri affair is first presented. We are told the senators and representatives will offer themselves at the bar to receive their seats, which they cannot obtain until the constitution recently adopted, is ratified by the two houses; hence, an early decision is desirable, &c. and so indeed it is, but we do not anticipate it—we fear another long and dull debate. For, abstracted from the main question, which some might have felt willing to pass over *sub silentio*, though severely opposed to the principle which it involves, for the sake of harmony—this constitution presents two *new* points for consideration. This is much to be regretted by both parties to what must stand as the chief objection. The constitution of Missouri forbids the passage of any law for the emancipation of slaves, without the consent of their owners, or an equivalent paid, &c. and also makes it the *duty* of the legislature to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming into and settling in the state, on any pretence whatever." It can hardly be believed that Congress will sanction either of these provisions: the first, in the present state of the public feeling, is inexpedient—besides, it is useless, and some will call it absurd; and the second is unconstitutional—because the legislature of the state has power over *property* of much greater amount than that to be derived from any authority which they may assume over slaves, regarding them also as property, and therefore it is useless: and it may be esteemed absurd, because the legislature can pass an act to tax slaves at the rate of 500 or 1000 dollars per head, per annum; and if such a tax were laid on females only, with a provision that they should be sold for a *term of years* and then be free, if it was not paid, what would become of the stock of slaves in Missouri? It would be extinct in a very few years, and the intent of the constitution become a nullity from the beginning; for slaves are a lawful subject of revenue, and may be taxed like any thing else: such is the principle of the constitution of the United States. And in regard to the other, it is expressly provided (art. iv. sec. 2.), "*that the citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.*" This is a very plain, simple and imperative sentence. Free blacks and mulattoes are "*citizens*" in all the states, I believe, east of the state of Delaware, as well as in the states northwest of the river Ohio, and they cannot be dispossessed of their right to locate themselves where they please. It is true, several of the states have passed laws to prevent the migration of such persons, and I am not prepared to say that these laws are not beneficial; if they have effect to keep away free blacks and mulattoes, perhaps

it is well; but all such laws must yield to the *express letter* of the constitution of the United States, whenever their validity is tried. The passage of these laws by the legislatures of individual states, however, is a very different thing from the case now presented: in the former, they are proper questions for the judiciary, the rightful tribunal to appeal to; but, in the latter, Congress is called upon to legislate on the subject, and pass a law in evident opposition to a striking provision of the constitution under which they themselves directly act. These views of the matter first struck us when we read the constitution of Missouri, and we were sorry that difficulty was apparently heaped upon difficulty, by the provisions which we have pointed out. For these reasons we look for another tedious debate on the "Missouri question," and think that an early disposition of it will not be made. We truly regret it, and shall be glad if it turns out otherwise. [*Niles' Reg.*

EXPLORING EXPEDITION—N. W.

From the Detroit Gazette of Sept. 15.

Last Friday evening governor Cass arrived here from Chicago, accompanied by lieutenant M'Kay, and Mr. R. A. Forsyth, both of whom belonged to the expedition—all in good health.

We understand that the objects of the expedition have been successfully accomplished. The party has traversed 4000 miles of this frontier since the last of May. Their route was from this place to Michilimackinac, and to the Saut of St. Mary's, where a treaty was concluded with the Chippeways, for the cession of a tract of land, with a view to the establishment of a military post. They thence coasted the southern shore of Lake Superior to the Fond du Lac, ascended the St. Louis river to one of its sources, and descended a small tributary stream of Sandy Lake to the Mississippi. They then ascended this latter river to the Upper Red Cedar Lake, which may be considered as the principal source of the Mississippi, and which is the reservoir where the small streams forming that river unite. From this lake they descended between thirteen and fourteen hundred miles to Prairie du Chien, passing by the post of St. Peter's on the route. They then navigated the Ouisconsin to the portage, entered the Fox river, and descended it to Green Bay. Then the party separated in order to obtain a topographical sketch of Lake Michigan. Some of them coasted the northern shore to Michilimackinac, and the other took the route by Chicago. From this point they will traverse the eastern shore of the lake to Michilimackinac, and may be expected here in the course of a week. Governor Cass returned from Chicago by land. A correct topographical delineation of this extensive frontier may now be expected from the accurate observations of captain Douglass, who is fully competent to perform the task. We have heretofore remained in ignorance upon this subject, and very little has been added to the stock of geographical knowledge since the French possessed the country. We understand that all the existing maps are found to be very erroneous. The character, numbers, situation and feelings of the Indians in those remote regions have been fully explored, and we trust that much valuable information upon these subjects will be communicated to the government and to the public. We learn that the Indians are peaceable, but that the effect of the immense distribution of presents to them by the British authorities at Malden and at Drummond's island, has been evident upon their wishes and feelings through the whole route. Upon the establishment of our posts, and the judicious distribution of our small military force must we rely, and not upon the disposition of the Indians. The important points of the country are now almost all occupied by our troops, and these points have been selected with great judgment. It is thought by the party, that the erection of a military work at the Saut, is essential to our security in that quarter. It is the key of Lake Superior, and the Indians in its vicinity are more disaffected than any others upon the route. Their daily intercourse with Drummond's island, leaves us no reason to doubt what are the means by which their feelings are excited and continued. The importance of this site, in a military point of view, has not escaped the observation of Mr. Calhoun, and it was for this purpose that a treaty was directed to be held. The report which he made to the House of Representatives in January last, contains his views upon the subject.

We cannot but hope that no reduction will be made in the ranks of the army. It is by physical force alone, and by a proper display of it, that we must expect to keep within reasonable bounds, the ardent, restless and discontented savages, by whom this whole country is filled and surrounded. Few persons, living at a distance, are aware of the means which are used, and too successfully used by the British agents, to embitter the minds of the Indians, and preserve such an influence over them, as will insure their co-operation, in the event of any future difficulties. A post at the Fond du Lac, will, before long, be necessary, and it is now proper that one should be established at the portage between the Fox and Ouisconsin rivers.

Mr. Schoolcraft has examined the geological structure of the country, and has explored, as far as practicable, its mineralogical treasures. We are happy to learn, that this department could not have been confided to one more able or zealous to effect the objects connected with it. Extensive collections, illustrating the natural history of the country, have been made, and will add to the common stock of American science.

We understand that copper, iron and lead are very abundant through the whole country, and that the great mass of copper upon the Outonagan river has been fully examined. Upon this, as well as upon other subjects, we hope we shall, in a few days, be able to communicate more detailed information.

John Collins is elected governor of Delaware; and Cæsar A. Rodney, and Lewis M'Lane, are elected to Congress.

New York, Oct. 21.

The Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in this state, which met in this city on Tuesday last, finished its business on Thursday

evening. It was more numerously attended than any previous convention in this diocess; 47 clergy and 67 lay deputies, in all 114 members, being present. The convention with great unanimity (there being only eight dissenting voices) adopted a plan for theological education in this diocess. The plan is of a nature calculated to unite the interests and views of Episcopalians throughout the state; and without being hostile to any plans that are contemplated elsewhere, by no means excludes the patronage which Episcopalians in other diocesses may be disposed to extend to a measure which promises to place theological education on a basis honourable to the church in this state and city, and to advance the great interests of the Protestant Episcopal Church at large.

Police Office, Savannah, Oct. 10, 1820.

The few remaining inhabitants require no information from this department, as to the disastrous state of things. The sad and melancholy spectacle daily exhibited, enables every resident individual, to form an immediate and infallible opinion. It is, therefore, for the benefit and information of absentees, our friends and fellow citizens, and that the whole public also should be treated with candour, that these notices are communicated.

Since the commencement of this desolating malady, cases of a malignant fever contradistinguished from other cases of bilious fever, have not at all been reported by some physicians, and irregularly by others. A better explanation will at some other time be given: all that I feel myself authorized now to say is, that the mortality, considering our present population, does not seem to diminish; that much sickness still prevails, and that three cases of *malignant fever* (as is denominated) have been reported to me; as having occurred from Saturday, and within this last 48 hours inclusive. But disease assumes various aspects of fever in our city, and each has had numerous victims. The appearances of the western state of the atmosphere promise no relief, and until they favour us, (under the blessing of the Almighty) we can hope for none.

THOS. U. P. CHARLTON, Mayor.

The prevalence of the influenza in Baltimore is manifested by the following singular fact—that the gentlemen of the bar are so afflicted with it, as to be unable to manage their causes before the court at the regular session of that body. The court were, consequently, compelled to adjourn for a week, to allow the gentlemen of the bar full time for the recovery of their oratorical talents. [*Morn. Chron.*

It appears by an official statement published at Alabama, that there were over twenty-seven millions of dollars due to the United States, for public lands sold at the land offices in Mississippi and Alabama only.

We observe advertised in the Baltimore papers, for representation, "a new grand romantic melodrama, called *Ivanhoe*, or the Jew's Daughter, performed in London last season with the greatest success."

Captain Alexander Clark, of Nantucket, has sailed from Stonington with his squadron, consisting of 1 ship, 2 brigs, and a schooner, well armed and manned, with the intention of exploring the land newly discovered northeast of Cape Horn.

MARRIED.

On Thursday, the 19th inst. at Friends' Meeting-house, in Pine street, Blakey Sharpless, to Mary Offley, daughter of the late Daniel Offley, all of this city.

DIED.

On the 19th inst. at Burlington, New Jersey, Elizabeth Foulke, of this city, for upwards of thirty years an eminent and highly respected minister of the society of Friends.

Extract of a Letter from Paris, dated 31*st Aug.*

"In a conversation with Mr. Gallatin this morning, I learnt that the French government show no disposition to come into our measures for the present at least; therefore the direct trade of the two countries must fall into third hands for some considerable time to come. Cowes has been hit upon as the place for deposit of cargoes destined for this quarter of France. This system, however, appears to me ridiculous, when neutral vessels can be found in abundance to carry on a direct trade with less delay and expense." [*N. Y. Merc. Adv.*

A constitutional journal is established at Naples, under the editorial management of two Neapolitans of literary talents, who went from Paris for that purpose.

Spain.—On the 4th of September a committee was appointed by the Cortes to frame a law project "for securing to the citizens the faculty of enlightening each other by means of political discussions, at the same time avoiding the abuse of the same."

The London Sunday Observer of the 10th of last month states, "that the last three publications of the Observer, including the supplementary sheet, containing the trial of the queen, used 96,741 stamps, and 193 reams of paper." The editor might have gone further, and said, that the sale of those papers produced 12,540 dollars 50 cents, and the revenue arising to government from the stamps, was 7,156 dollars: and might we not add, that if the queen's trial continue much longer, the revenue from newspaper stamps will probably balance the expense of the prosecution. [*N. Y. Gaz.*

Forging the new bank notes, about to be issued in England, is by a new statute to be punished, not with death, but with transportation for fourteen years.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, November 4, 1820. No. 19.

THE MISSOURI QUESTION.

The violent agitation that shook the whole nation during the late discussion of this question, had induced an opinion that the members opposed to the extension of slavery, would shrink from the responsibility of exciting anew the sectional suspicions and animosities, which are still watchful. But in the constitution formed by the candidate for admission into the union, are two provisions but ill calculated to facilitate her reception. Missouri, by a clause, forbidding them to take any measures for the abolition of slavery, has attempted to take from her legislature the power of acting upon better principles, when they shall attain the ascendency. Another article makes it the duty of the legislature to pass laws preventing the entrance into the state of free negroes and mulattoes. *This* is in palpable opposition to that part of the constitution of the United States, which guarantees to every citizen of any state, the same privileges in other states, as are enjoyed by citizens thereof; and the *former* seems rather foolishly intended to set at defiance the advocates of the restriction.

As it seems, therefore, no longer doubtful that the claims of Missouri will be opposed by a large part of Congress, the question may be considered as open to discussion, and we may take the liberty of offering to our readers a few reflections and opinions upon the important occasion.

In the first place, we earnestly deprecate the acrimony of temper, and the unrestrained expression of zeal, which were indulged during the debate, by many of the opponents of slavery. We do not say that they were without provocation, or that they were as much in fault as was the other side; but angry warmth neither conciliates nor convinces. It is the object of discussion to elicit truth; but this cannot be done by a mode of disputing (we cannot say of reasoning) that makes our opponents less likely to feel or to admit the weight of our arguments. As instances of what we consider wrong in principle and policy, we will mention, that when the alternative was held out by the southern interest, their opponents declared that rather than agree to extend the foul crime, they would forego the advantages of union; and to threats of forcible opposition, they replied with great if not with equal intemperance. If a charitable moderation towards those who differ from us in opinion, were not dictated by sound reason as well as by benevolence, and if there were in the present case no peculiar claims to this modest and affectionate forbearance, a regard to our own wishes, a just sense of policy, should teach us to avoid a course that can never be successful. A sullen and discontented submission on the part of the southern states, an acquiescence with the determination of the majority without any approbation of their reasons and with a distrust of their motives, would be far from satisfying any reasonable philanthropist or good patriot. If we can persuade our brethren to recognise the correctness of the principles upon which we act, the work is done; but to overwhelm them by numbers will do little towards the change of their opinions.

When with evident emotion Mr. Macon, the venerable member from North Carolina, in answer to a zealous speech of a Pennsylvanian, invited him to go home with him to see that *his* slaves were not the miserable beings—and that *he* was not the cruel tyrant—that had been drawn as illustrative of society in the southern states; —when he imagined his own return to his estate, and described the kind greetings that would pass between him and *his people*, we could not but feel an affectionate respect for him, and would cordially have extended to him the right hand of fellowship. There could be no doubt of the sincerity of his opinions or of the benevolence of his heart, and we thought the abolition of slavery itself would be certain, were all slaveholders like him. Would to God that in the approaching trial the same conciliating mildness may be shown by all of that party in this question, whom we con-

sider the advocates of truth. To look for this, however, would be to forget the imperfection of human nature when irritated by opposition and animated by the pride of opinion: but we may hope for much good if only one man can be found who will endeavour to stand between the contending parties, and speak the language of peace. Could there be a better field for the statesman, the orator, the patriot? Animated by the most devoted attachment to the national union, while inflexible in his adherence to the principles of liberty, he would not give railing for railing, nor suffer the taunts of his adversaries to raise an angry spirit within him. When passionately accused of a wish for the dissolution of the union, how great would be the effect of the magnanimity which could call into view the merits of his opponents, and speak with fervour and sincerity of the obligations we owe them for the ardour with which they united with us in the revolution, and for the great men to whom they have given birth; and here he might make a strong appeal to the veneration which is felt by the whole people for the FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY. On such an occasion the affectionate exhortations of the *valedictory address* would not be forgotten.

He would stigmatize as the greatest wickedness, a willingness to throw into jeopardy the hopes of human improvement that have been founded upon the success of our scheme of government. The immediate effects of a division would be disastrous and distressing beyond measure.—Where can the line be drawn, that will not separate father from son, and interrupt the intercourse of friends and brothers? And how can we endure the thought, that in passing from Pennsylvania to Maryland, from Ohio to Kentucky, the passenger must undergo the inspection of public sentries, and feel that he is about to enter a foreign land! He would speak of a civil war as of a conception too monstrous to be uttered. He would say, that in common with millions of his fellow citizens, he would rather that his arm should wither than that it should be lifted against his *countrymen*—a title he should never cease to apply to the whole nation. Far from irritating the pride of his opponents by dwelling upon scenes of servile war and bloody destruction, as the inevitable consequences of a separation, he would declare it to be impossible that in any event his constituents could look upon the progress of a foreign or domestic enemy, without forgetting all differences of opinion, and flying with open hearts and ready hands to testify that they can never forget the ties which have bound them to the south. With such feelings as these, an advocate of moderation could not be unsuccessful, and the voice of reason would find its way.

There is another part of the discussion of very great importance—we allude to the manner in which it is to be carried on in newspapers, and out of Congress generally. The editors of the public prints should duly consider their duty to society, so to use the influence they possess as to contribute to form correct opinions and promote the welfare of the nation. To this end it would be prudent to avoid all declamation upon cruelty to slaves, all general charges of want of principle, and every thing that may tend to exasperate, and can certainly do nothing to promote the object in view. We notice with much pleasure in a late National Intelligencer the following remarks:

"There is one allusion which has touched a chord that vibrates painfully to our feelings. We have no hesitation in avowing it, however we may grieve at the cause. It is to the presumption of the possibility that any party in this country, defeated in the Capitol, will "proceed to extremities, dart from the constitutional sphere, and attempt to dissolve the union." It was with affliction, rather than surprise, that we heard, on the floor of either house of Congress, during the last session, language which at least admitted the possibility of such a consequence to the imposition of the proposed restriction on Missouri. Sincerely as we regretted the introduction of this question—and still more the discussion of it, some of the consequences of which we but too clearly foresaw—it was with a feeling of dismay that we heard the dissolution of the union mentioned as one of them. Making due allowance for the excitement of those who heard, in fancy, the agonizing shrieks of the wives of their bosom and the children of their love, butchered by the hands of infuriated menials—of those who thought they saw the knife at their throat, and the torch at their door—it were scarcely just to note, and cruel to blame, the maledictions which were on this occasion wrung from the hearts of some of the representatives of the south. Though expressions, thrown out under such excitement, ought not to be recorded as the evidence of any man's deliberate opinion, they are yet, in cooler moments, to be regretted. Nay, we are sure they have been.

"Much more to be deprecated are the

opinions which found their way into some of our public prints, in which the dissolution of the union was openly recommended, without the excuse of the excitement which existed in Congress, as a consequence of the imposition of the restriction on Missouri. We know the people of the south too well to suppose they would for a moment entertain the idea. The dissolution of the union! It is a sound almost to disturb the dead in their repose. We hope never to hear it again. The constitution can only be amended, changed, or annulled, by the authority which framed it. To admit any other mode of dissolving the union, is a dangerous political heresy. What others may think on this subject, we know not; but, for ourselves, entertaining the opinions which it is well known we do on the Missouri subject, we should yet feel wretched if we supposed that the exclusion of Missouri for ever from the union could endanger the fabric of our constitution. The storm might rock its battlements, but could not rive its foundation. We trust it is too deeply laid in the principles and affections of the people, and too powerfully fortified by their attachment, to be in danger of prostration from any general cause but dilapidation by time, or from any event short of a convulsion of the moral world."

Holding no faith in the right of instruction, we should yet be glad, with a view to increase the strength of the moderate party, if the state of Pennsylvania had an opportunity of again declaring her opinion, joined (as from some indications in the debate on the fire at Savannah, we think it would be,) with an affectionate expression of her attachment to the southern states.

Time is the greatest moderator, and the right will be sure of success if its advocates do not, by the extremes of timidity or rashness, overthrow their own hopes. What is now wanting, is not strength of intellect so much as kindness of heart.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

Mr. Peale's Grand Picture of "The Court of Death."

Upon a canvas of the unusual length of twenty-four feet, (shrouded with ample hangings, and illuminated by unseen windows) beneath a sable canopy, a youthful corpse, of the finest proportions, extended at its feet, is dimly discovered a majestic figure clad in flowing drapery, the right hand extended, as if silently superintending the irresistible progress of time and decay upon the life of man. On the right hand of this mysterious being, an enticing figure of Pleasure is gracefully attending to silver vases: one filled with wine, with which she is tempting to repeated draughts a fine youth, whose shapely limbs betray marks of incipient debility; the other smoking with the incense gratuitously offered at the shrine of disease and death. Behind them is perceived Remorse, hiding its guilty head with uplifted hands; and Despair plunging a dagger into its breast. Further on are beheld, in different attitudes of agony or distress, the self devoted victims of intemperance and disease, which are so feelingly described by Milton, in Paradise Lost:

——————— all maladies
Of ghastly spasm, or racking torture, qualms
Of heart-sick agony, all fev'rous kind,
Convulsions, epilepsies, fierce catarrhs,
Demoniac phrensy, moping melancholy,
Dropsies, and asthmas, and joint-racking rheums.

Enough, perhaps too much, of this agonizing perspective of human misery, which brought tears into the eyes of our first father, till the pitying angel assured him that there was

——————— another way, besides
These painful passages, how we may come
To death, and mix with our co-natural dust:
The rule of, not too much, by temperance taught,
So might we live till like ripe fruit we dropt
Into our mother's lap, or were with ease
Gather'd (not harshly pluck'd,) for death mature.

The soothing idea of the poet is here beautifully personified by the painter. Upon the left hand of the figure of Death—not represented as the skeleton of the grave yard, or even the king of terrors; but as an inflexible judge, presiding with discernment and deliberation over the final result of human frailty—stands a venerable figure of Old Age, led to the very brink of Lethe by an amiable figure of Virtue, looking upon the countenance of Death, not with fear and aversion, but with mingled resignation and hope. From these pleasing figures to the extent of the canvas, the whole side of the picture is taken up with a metaphorical representation of the inhuman waste of life occasioned by the ravages and consequent miseries of war. In this the artist has wisely avoided the absurdities of Heathen mythology, under cover of which the naked figure of Mercury was, without scruple, placed by Rubens alongside of a cardinal in long robes and in a broad brimmed beaver, in the presence

chamber of a modern queen; and half the gods and goddesses of the court of Jupiter have been summoned to attend, on clouds, the inauguration or the apotheosis of a Christian prince. There are, however, in this episode, defects of a less ostensible description, which are willingly consigned by the writer of these brief remarks, to the researches of the curious; since the beauties of this sublime composition are amply sufficient to redeem its blemishes, and they will no doubt, sooner or later, give it a place among the most faultless and elaborate productions of the pencil.

Agriculture.

FROM THE AMERICAN FARMER.

SAINT FOIN.

Belmont, July 15th, 1820.

Sir—On the receipt of your letter, with the stalk of the annual, or *Italian clover*, I immediately put it into the hands of our professor of botany; under a hope that he could, and would furnish a more correct account of it, than I am capable of doing. But he has not favoured me with any reply to my request. I see in your several papers, every thing our knowledge of the subject admits; and therefore any addition in my power would be superfluous. But lest it should seem that I overlooked and neglected your very laudable endeavour to gain the information required for public benefit, I have deemed it right to apologize for the apparent inattention on my part. I think too well of your editorial merit; and of your paper, as a vehicle of agricultural intelligence, voluntarily to neglect any contribution I could afford to its usefulness. And yet the zeal for the subject of agriculture, and for the real independence, plenty, and comfort it produces, is so universally spread throughout our country; that an old labourer in the vineyard may be excused from further service; when so many cultivators, vigorous and intelligent, have come forward, with highly meritorious evidences of the most valuable kind of public spirit.

The *Hedysarum onobrychis—Sain foin, or Lupinella*, (entirely different from the Italian clover,) I know well. Mr. Crawford was pleased to send some of the seed to our Philadelphia Agricultural Society; and no doubt of the same parcel noticed in your paper. I wish I could give any agreeable or instructive account of this plant, encouraging to its adoption in *our* country.—Where it will thrive, no provender can exceed it, in plenty and durability. I have, however, never been fortunate in its cultivation; although I have, in several periods of my life, tried it in every way, and in every kind of soil (common in our country) recommended in books, or gleaned from conversations with Europeans who came from the countries in which it abounds. When young it is the tenderest of plants. Weeds, grasses, droughts, and other annoyances, often overcome and destroy it. In its own countries, it is almost invulnerable, after it arrives at a proper age, when it exterminates other plants interfering with it. I have had no success in drilling; or sowing in broadcast and weeding by hand, or with hoes. Our winters are frequently fatal to it, when young and tender; and I have had it destroyed by frosts at three and four years old. It is a beautiful flower in the *parterre;* and I have continued it in my garden, wherein it was called *cockshead*, for many years. But I was often obliged to renew it from the seed. In Europe it will continue twenty years, and *that* in cold countries. I have, in my experiments from time to time, used many bushels of seed, both imported and of my own sowing.

I was much mortified under my failures; supposing I had not skilfully managed it. But the late *Governeur Morris* told me it had been tried unsuccessfully by himself and others, in New York and in some other part of our country which I forget. *My* failures ought not to discourage further trials. I deemed myself, however, bound to mention them, to warn against cultivating this plant, at first, on an extensive scale. It may succeed in better hands, and in some parts of our country more genial to its growth and culture. But it would be prudent to begin with small experiments, and extend the cultivation as it may be found successful. By cleaning and preparing the ground well, previously to sowing it, much subsequent labour and expense would be saved.

After all, it would appear that the sain foin is but a substitute for less troublesome and better grasses; in lands wherein none others will profitably grow. Clay and wet soils are hostile to it, and rich grounds choke it in its infancy with weeds and natural grasses. Soiling it green, is preferred to saving it for hay, although both are practised, and it is difficult to cure, or keep. It is strong food, most proper for working horses; and cattle are most fond of it cut green; but care must be taken to prevent their eating it too ravenously, and becoming *hoven*. The hay is nutritive, but coarse and puffy: and *that* in proportion to the burden

of the crop, which is often two, and sometimes three tons to the acre.

Pasturing, the first year of its growth, is injurious, and not desirable at any time, although it is practised. We have superior grasses for grazing in all stages of growth of the sain foin, yet it affords great abundance of forage where no other can be so plenteously obtained.

The culture is well worth attempting in mountainous, and second or third rate and light lands, wherein the root can penetrate deeply, for its roots extend to almost incredible depths, and the longer and larger the root, the more the plant will thrive.

In *Switzerland* and other such countries, sain foin is a main dependence, because in many parts of those countries the finer grasses will not grow profitably. In *England* it is cultivated in their thin soils for the same reason. *Sinclair* notes it as indigenous in Britain.

The seed is very subject to being faulty, because the plant is often cut before maturity, the hay being more valuable on this account. From one bushel to five, accordingly as the seed is ripe, light, or heavy, are required for sowing an acre. Some recommend spring sowing, others seed in the autumn. It must be lightly covered. The seed is difficult to preserve, being apt to heat, and thus become worthless. Some sow it with grain; others disapprove of this mode Sometimes, clover is sown with it; and the clover, like a bad nurse, will often overlay and smother its *protégé*.

Drilling and horse hoeing are most generally practised to insure cleanliness; and frequent stirring the soil is essential—so that much labour is required in its cultivation; and its being sown in meagre soils, such labour in the first stages of its growth, is indispensable. Yet, in some parts of Europe, large fields of it sown with grain are to be seen in great plenty, without such expensive and laborious attention. I have not succeeded in this way. *Dung* produces its foes—weeds and grasses—marl, ashes, and such auxiliaries are, in preference applied. I have failed by sowing imported seed, which is often like most others heated in the ship, or negligently collected, and ill prepared for transportation. It flowers in June, and ripens its seed in July, in this country. In Europe, much later.

Having repeatedly tried the culture of this plant, in drill and broadcast, I found it to interfere so much with my other engagements, that I abandoned its cultivation. Where labour is cheap, and at command, it would make, however, an agreeable variety to cultivate a small spot with sain foin, both for instruction and amusement. I do not hold my experience as exemplary, or in any wise as a test. But I have candidly given, so far as I know, or have learned from books or conversation, the debtor and creditor in relation to it.

France is accounted the country most favourable to sain foin, which in Europe is commonly called *French grass*. It is as often styled *sain* foin—*wholesome*, as *saint* foin, holy hay. *Lupinella* is to me, a new appellation. It is not of the same botanical class with the *Lupin;* though its flowers and leaves bear some distant resemblance to some of that tribe. Botanists must decide on the propriety of this nomenclature. Some seed of the *Lucerne* has been sent hither from *Italy*, under the name "*Lupinella*."

In the appendix to *sir H. Davy's Agricultural Chemistry*, it appears by *Sinclair's* "*Experiments on Grasses*," that in grounds in which *clovers* grow thriftily, the *Hedysarum onobryckis*, or *Sain foin*, grown on the same kind of soils, is inferior to the *clovers* of the best species, both in grass, hay, and nutritive matter. But Sinclair conjectures, that on dry, hilly situations or chalky soils, "it would be superior in every respect." The corollary to be drawn from this, is that the soils last mentioned, are good for sain foin, and improper for clovers. The *Trifolium macrorhizum*, is astonishingly productive. It may be the same with, or equal to that whereof you sent to me the specimen. It is a native of *Hungary*, and an annual plant; but more fit for use as green forage, than for hay. It sheds abundance of seed, from which constant successions arise; so that is *quasi*, perennial. See pages xliv. xlv. of the appendix.* With my best regards, I am your obedient servant, RICHARD PETERS.

J. S. SKINNER, Esq.

FROM THE AMERICAN FARMER.

GEOGRAPHY OF BOTANY,

Or the Effect of Climate upon Corn and other Productions of the Earth.

Essex, June 2d, 1820.

Dear Sir—I received your present of the Golden Sioux Corn a few days ago, for

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* *Sinclair's* experiment was made on *sain foin* producing far under two tons to the acre. It lost almost two-thirds in drying; and the nutritive matter in 3539 pounds of hay, was only 314

which be pleased to accept my thanks: it shall certainly have a fair trial. As this is the first leisure which I have had since, I could not sooner reply to your inquiries—"whether plants do not change character by transplantation, and accommodate themselves to climate? and whether this corn, for example, will not take advantage of the long summers of the south, and give itself more time accordingly, for coming to perfection." Investigations of this kind belong to what has been called "Botanical Geography"—a branch of science, comparatively speaking, of very recent origin; and one to which, I believe, no person in our country has yet devoted sufficient attention to have collected facts enough for forming any thing like a rational theory. At least I can answer positively in regard to myself, by saying that I have no knowledge, derived from my own experience, which would enable me to give you any satisfactory information. The little, however, which I know of the opinions and researches of others in this interesting study, I will communicate with pleasure, as it may be the means of eliciting from those who are much better informed, some details which may lead to useful practical results. M. de Humboldt, and Monsieur de Caudelle, appear to be the individuals who have most distinguished themselves in this science; and indeed they seem to have done all that diligent research, accuracy of observation, and great sagacity of intellect, aided by much learning, could accomplish within the period which they have devoted to these inquiries. The latter, according to his own account, spent six entire years in prosecuting, through the different departments of France, such investigations as were calculated to determine, with all attainable precision, the general laws by which the geography of plants is regulated. The 8th number of the 'Journal of Science and the Arts,' contains a very interesting and instructive article, extracted from the works of this writer, which appears to me to detail many facts, observations, and reasonings applicable to the subject of your inquiries. The whole, taken together, seem to prove, very conclusively, that, although temperature arising either from climate or elevation, light, moisture, and aspect, exercise each a considerable influence over the growth of vegetables—the distribution of heat in the different seasons of the year has more power than any other cause whatever; and, consequently, that where plants have most heat in a given time, supposing nearly equal moisture, they will mature soonest. The northern summers being much shorter than southern ones, and a certain quantity of heat being essential to the ripening of all vegetable productions, this quantity must be given, either by each day in the north being actually hotter, than each corresponding day in the south; or by the heat of the northern summer day being exerted, as is the fact, for a longer portion of the twenty-four hours, than the heat of the southern summer day. In either of these cases the quantum of heat required for the maturity of plants within the limited time, would be received, and they would of course ripen sooner after their growth commenced, in high latitudes than in low.

I know not how the article alluded to might suit the tastes of others, but I certainly have seen nothing of the kind, the perusal of which has gratified me more; nor do I believe you could well give any thing of the same nature in the American Farmer, which would generally prove more acceptable to that class of your readers who are anxious to extend the science of agriculture so far as to embrace every thing connected with it. I am, dear sir, your sincere well wisher, JAMES M. GARNETT.

pounds. All the clovers are equal to it; and the T. macrorhizum exceeds it in weight of nutritive matter, as 5 to 67. In pages xlii. xliii. iv. v. and vi. the comparative weights of nutritive matter, between the sain foin and other grasses may be seen.

Record.

Presentment of the Grand Jury.

The grand jury of the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, inquiring for the city of Philadelphia, for the mayor's court of the said city, having finished the business laid before them by the officer prosecuting in behalf of the commonwealth, have taken into their serious and deliberate consideration, other matters, in which they conceive themselves, in common with their fellow citizens, deeply concerned. Before they ask to be discharged, they beg leave to state some of the most important of them to the court, trusting it will not be considered as trespassing beyond the limit of their duty, and that their representation will receive the candid attention of the court, and of the public at large.

The late calamity with which our city has been visited, although comparatively not so severe as hitherto, suggests the necessity of adopting and executing every possible measure to prevent its recurrence. For this purpose, the grand jury believe still greater vigilance is demanded from the proper authorities, to which the guardianship of the health of the city is confided. They mean not to convey any censure for the past, still less to meddle with the long disputed question, whether the yellow fever (so called,) is of foreign

or of domestic origin. But while it remains unsettled, (and the faculty seem to be as far from resolving it as at any former period,) it is the opinion of the grand jury, that it is a duty dictated by self preservation, to guard with vigilance every avenue to its approach. The grand jury would accordingly beg leave to recommend that the quarantine laws should be strictly and rigidly enforced. And on the other hand, assuming it to be an uncontroverted fact, that cleanliness is healthful, and filthiness always a source of disease, they would recommend also to the Board of Health and the city police, increased care and exertion to prevent or remove whatever is calculated to generate or propagate disease. A yet stricter attention to the streets, lanes and alleys of our city, particularly such as are in the neighbourhood of the wharves, and the immediate removal of every thing from them, whether animal or vegetable, which is liable to putrefaction, seems to be indispensable to the health of the city. The condition of many of our wharves also calls for attention. The grand jury conceive it would be greatly improved if they were paved and carried out into deep water, so as to prevent the exposure of mud and filth at the bottom when the tide is out. The paving of the wharves would contribute no less to the comfort and convenience of the citizens than to the general health, and it is a matter of some surprise to the grand jury, that the example of paving them has not long since been followed by their proprietors. The condition of Water street generally, especially of the houses on the west side of it, affords just cause of apprehension. Imperfectly ventilated, and feeling scarcely any of the purifying influence of the sun, many of them are crowded by inhabitants to a degree, which in a purer atmosphere, and with far greater personal cleanliness, would be consistent with neither their comfort nor health. If disease be not generated among them, certain it is, that when introduced, it finds abundant means to nourish and propagate it. The grand jury are impressed with a conviction that experience has manifested the wisdom and prudence of William Penn, the great founder of Pennsylvania, who, by his plan of this city, intended that no dwellings should be suffered eastward of Front street, and they believe that even now, true economy would be consulted by restoring that part of the city to his original design. It is a work worthy of the enterprise of the citizens of this great and growing metropolis, and although it may be postponed, it will probably be at some time accomplished. There can be little doubt, whether, admitting it to be highly expedient, the present generation should engage in it, or leave it to posterity with increased expense and diminished ability, after the prosperity of our city shall have been retarded, and the accumulation of calamity shall demand it as a work of necessity, not leave it as one of choice. In the meanwhile, as an imperfect measure of caution, the grand jury conceive that the portion of the city before alluded to, should receive the most scrupulous and rigid attention.

In connexion with what has been before stated in relation to health, the grand jury feel themselves bound to bring to the view of the court, the pest house, which has been opened near to the Alms House, and likewise the old brick ponds in the western part of the city. That the former establishment, so unnecessarily placed in a populous neighbourhood, a pregnant source of alarm, if not of danger, should have been tolerated, can perhaps only be accounted for by the general ignorance of its existence. The pools of stagnant water collected in the latter, are nuisances which can and ought to be immediately removed.

The grand jury have observed with deep regret, the great and increasing evils arising from the almost innumerable tippling houses, *licensed* and *unlicensed*, which are distributed through every quarter of the city. The latter are often found under the mask of grocery stores, and oyster cellars, and the former are only distinguished from these, by their being the *open* and *legalized* resorts of drunkards and vagabonds. Both alike, are overflowing fountains of misery and vice of every description. It is but too notorious, that in very many instances in which licenses have been obtained, instead of being used for public convenience, and lawful purposes, they are abused and made covers for the retail of spirituous liquors to the labouring poor, and to domestic servants. To such houses they are tempted to resort, until the habit of intemperance becomes inveterate—they are corrupted by evil communications, and disease, extreme poverty, and crime, quickly and surely follow. This evil has been often seen and commented upon, and the grand jury, while they would recommend increased vigilance in suppressing the sale of spirituous liquors, by less measure than a quart *without license*, respectfully submit to the court, whether public morality and happiness, might not be greatly promoted, if licenses were granted with more caution and less frequency than heretofore?

The grand jury also represent as a great grievance, the many trifling vexations, and groundless prosecutions which are sustained and brought forward in the shape of bills of indictment, occasioning great expense to the public, loss and inconvenience to the parties, and producing a spirit of discord and litigation, adverse to the precepts of religion, and the dictates of sound morality. They entertain the opinion, possibly ill founded, that it would not be a violation of official duty, if in all these cases in which public justice and the community have no more concern than in civil suits, the magistrate were to assume the character of peace maker, and endeavour to reconcile wrangling neighbours to each other, instead of whetting their resentment, by furnishing means to prolong their quarrels.

The grand jury also represent as nuisances, the pawnbroker's offices, shops for the sale of old clothes, and petty auction stores, which now lamentably abound. They subject the poor and distressed to usurious extortions, they tempt to the commission of fraud and crime, and they defraud the state of its revenue. The facility which they afford for converting stolen goods, (of which they are notoriously the receptacles) into money, greatly encourages the commission of larcenies, especially by domestics. Without their aid, the sale of stolen goods could with difficulty be attempted, without detection, and the temptation to crime would not only be greatly diminished, but the chance of regaining his property would be greater for the plundered individual.

The penitentiary is a subject of great interest and concern, and although the grand jury do not conceive it necessary to dwell on it, they cannot refrain from bringing it to the view of the court. The theory of our system of punishment for crime, has excited the admiration, and been imitated by not only most of our sister states, but in a degree by some foreign countries. Pennsylvania has reason to be proud of it; yet it is a lamentable truth, that owing to the insufficiency of accommodation in the present building and yard, it is in practice greatly disappointed, if not defeated. The reformation of the offender is its charitable purpose, but how can reformation be expected in the midst of criminals, of all ages and grades of vice? The insecurity too of the present building, for the purpose of confinement, and the danger to their own, and the public health, in consequence of the prisoners being unavoidably crowded, need only be adverted to. Their importance to the safety of the community, must be obvious, and the grand jury have thus generally remarked upon this particular subject, because they are encouraged to believe that their views are by no means peculiar to themselves, but entertained by those who are authorized to remedy existing evils.

Other subjects of minor importance, although in themselves worthy of attention, have been under the consideration of the grand jury, but they refrain from trespassing longer on the time of the court. They suppose that prevention or remedy, for most of the evils here represented, are already within the municipal powers and authority, and if there be any not so, the grand jury cannot doubt that upon a suitable representation to the legislature, they will be so enlarged and extended as to be commensurate to every exigency. All which is respectfully submitted.

By order of the grand jury,

JOHN M'CAULEY, Foreman.

I. WAMPOLE, Sec'ry.

Philadelphia, Oct. 26, 1820.

A meeting of the natives of Great Britain and Ireland is called in the papers, to take into consideration the propriety of presenting an address of condolence to the queen of England!

Miscellany.

From the New Monthly Magazine.

THE VISION OF LAS-CASAS.

Las-Casas, the eloquent, the indefatigable defender of the Americans, lay stretched on his death-bed in his ninetieth year. For a long period preceding his demise, all his thoughts were directed toward the happiness of a better world; and though now about to enter that world, he trembled on the brink of eternity. Conscious of the purity of his heart and the innocence of his life, he had encountered, without dismay, the angry glance of kings, and he dreaded no earthly judge; but the judge before whom he was speedily to be summoned, was GOD, and he was awed by the supreme sanctity of infinite justice. Thus the strongest as well as the weakest eye is overpowered by the dazzling beams of the sun.

At the foot of his couch was seated an aged monk, who had long been his faithful friend. Equal in virtue to Las-Casas, he loved him as a brother; inferior to him in courage and talent, he respected him even to admiration. He was continually near his death-bed; and observed with sorrow the decay of nature, though he still endeavoured to rouse the hopes of his dying friend; but the great thought of eternity filled the soul of Las-Casas: he begged the old man to retire, and leave him in the presence of his judge.

Las-Casas collected himself: he recalled the past to his memory, and cast a retrospective glance over his whole life; but to whatever point he fixed his attention, he discovered errors and faults; he saw them in their full magnitude, and their consequences lay extended before him like a vast ocean. His good actions, on the contrary, seemed poor, covered with blemishes, and void of the fruits which he had expected they would produce; like a feeble streamlet which loses itself amidst the sands of the desert, and whose banks are adorned neither with flowers nor verdure. At this aspect, overwhelmed with shame and repentance, in his imagination he knelt down before God, and fervently exclaimed: "Oh, Almighty Father of mankind, do not condemn me; let me find grace in thy presence!"

This emotion overpowered his strength, and he sunk into a profound sleep. Suddenly he thought that the stars of heaven lay scattered beneath his feet, and that he ascended, supported on clouds, through boundless space. At an immense distance he beheld rays of dazzling light issuing from majestic obscurity; and on every side innumerable legions of beings rose from, and descended to inferior worlds. Scarcely had his eye gazed and his soul admired, when an angel, with the severe brow of a judge, appeared before him, and opened a book which he held in his hand. A shuddering like that of death—like that which seizes the criminal at sight of the scaffold, chilled the heart of the old man when the immortal being pronounced his name, and enumerated all the noble faculties with which Heaven had endowed his mind—all the mild and generous affections, the seeds of which had been diffused through his blood—and named the opportunities for the exercise of virtue, the aids and encou-

ragements which his situation afforded him. At this moment, all that was good in him seemed to belong to God, and only his errors and sins appeared to belong properly to himself.

The angel commenced the history of his life; he turned in search of the inconsiderate aberrations of his youth; but they were nowhere to be found: the first tear of repentance had obliterated them. The tear alone was visible in their stead; and every serious resolution to do well—every joyful emotion on the fulfilment of a duty—every sentiment of virtue and humility, and every triumph over terrestrial nature, which is ever revolting against Heaven, was carefully noted down. Hope then began to kindle in the heart of Las-Casas: for, though his errors were more numerous than grains of sand on the sea shore, yet his life abounded in acts of goodness; and these acts became the more frequent, and his faults the more rare, in proportion as his years increased—in proportion as experience and reflection developed the energy of his mind, and the habit of fulfilling his duty strengthened his desire and his power of fulfilling it. Yet his most noble actions were not perfect in the eye of God, and the source of all his virtue was still troubled and tarnished.

At length the angel raised his voice, and his words flowed eloquently:—the youth had attained the age of maturity, and the new world, formerly peaceful and happy, was a prey to carnage and despair, when Las-Casas appeared like the hero of humanity. The angel described what he suffered and what he achieved; how all the sorrows of innocence became his own, and fired his soul with that ardent zeal which even old age could not extinguish; how, supported by the justice of his cause, he braved the vengeance of power, and pronounced a loud anathema on the fanatics who smiled on murder, and the policy which neglected to punish them. The angel enumerated the instances in which he had risked his life on the waves of the sea, regardless of storms and shipwreck, to lay the complaints of the innocent at the foot of the throne, or to convey hope and consolation back to the afflicted. He mentioned how Las-Casas had appeared before the proud conqueror, the first who had ever ruled over two worlds, when, on hearing the voice which reproached him for his crimes, the monarch imagined himself in the presence of the Judge of the universe, and that his death-bed was enveloped in avenging flames. The angel painted the sorrow of the virtuous man, when he wept over his blighted hopes—his courage, when he re-assembled his forces, and dashed into new enterprises—and how, when his hopes were finally extinguished, he buried himself in retirement, renouncing all pleasure and consolation, regarding his terrestrial abode as a dungeon, and devoting his whole soul to the thoughts of eternity. As the angel perused the book, his eyes became animated, his countenance grew more and more radiant, and beams of pure and gentle light expanded around him—for zeal in the cause of truth and justice, though reduced to silence, and testified only by tears, is of inestimable value in the eye of Heaven.

The old man listened with downcast eyes; and melancholy thoughts were expressed in his countenance. A sad recollection oppressed his heart, namely, the fatal counsel which he had once given, in a phrensy of despair, to relieve one people by the oppression of another.* His thoughts wandered on the banks of the Senegal and the Gambia, and to the interior of that quarter of the world, where eternal warfare resigned millions of men to the chains of European barbarians. The angel, at length, pronounced that fatal action, more dreadful in its consequences than a crime of darkness, more fertile in murder and tears than the old man could have imagined in his most disturbed dreams. That immensity of horror, beyond the power of language to express or fancy to picture, spread over continent, sea, and islands; the crimes of barbarity, the tortures of innocence, the stifled shrieks of agony, the silence of despair, all were present, all were reckoned up before God. Las-Casas stood motionless and almost petrified with horror. At this awful moment his thoughts were no longer occupied with the presence of the supremely holy and just Being, from whose eye no darkness can shelter, and no wings protect: his heart, moved by compassion, felt only the misery of so many millions of his fellow creatures. The angel

* Though the introduction of this incident appears to be the object for which the Vision is principally written, yet it is very doubtful whether Las-Casas did really recommend the cultivation of the American colonies by African negroes. The fact has been strongly contested by many writers, and the *Abbé Gregoire*, in a memoir which he presented to the Institute, seems to have proved, beyond contradiction, that this ancient tradition respecting the origin of the slave trade, is not founded on truth.

beheld him tormented by the serpents of remorse, and shed a tear of pity.

A voice then issued from the sanctuary —a mild and gentle voice like that of a forgiving father, and the angel heard the words: "*Tear the book.*"

He obeyed; and the wrecks of the book were annihilated. "Thy foibles," said he, "are effaced from the recollection of God; but thy name is inscribed before him in characters of light: Were he to punish faults such as thine, no mortal could be justified, and heaven, void of inmates, would be a mere desert. God doomed immortal souls to wander amidst dust, that through errors they might come to the knowledge of truth, acquire virtue from faults, and happiness from suffering."

"Oh, take from me!" exclaimed Las-Casas, shedding a torrent of tears, "in pity take me from the recollection of my fault, or I shall eternally bear my punishment within my own bosom. Destroy this terrible recollection, as thou hast destroyed the book wherein it was inscribed, or in heaven I shall vainly seek the presence of the Almighty; in the bosom of happiness, I shall vainly sigh for repose."

"Mortal," replied the angel, "does not happiness exist within thyself? And where canst thou find it, imperfect creature—thou who art not, like God, exempt from faults and errors! where canst thou find happiness, if not in the proof which thou hast given of having employed all thy faculties to do good—in the sincere and profound love which animates thy heart for the meanest of thy fellow creatures—and in thy nobleness of mind which is evinced by thy very repentance?"—"But this inexpressible affliction, prolonged through the lapse of ages, ..."—"It will be converted into happiness and plenitude of joy, in fulfilment of the plan of HIM who created thee. Thou hast acknowledged thy weakness; now acknowledge HIM in his grandeur."

He motioned to the clouds, which opened with the roaring of thunder, and the angel descended with Las-Casas to created worlds. The immortal being showed him the earth, which rolled beneath his feet; he pointed to the steep mountains covered with eternal snow; and marked out the devastation occasioned by earthquakes and tempests. Brooks and rivulets flowed down from the hills, and millions of beings were happy on their banks; the blessing of heaven descended in thunder upon the earth, and the woods and plains were clothed with fresher verdure. In those places which had suffered from the ravages of the storm, man breathed more freely, and his countenance bore the ruddy hue of health: for contagious disease no longer floated amidst the atmospheric vapours; the tempest had broken its wings, and it had vanished.

Then the angel having developed to the eyes of Las-Casas the scourges which afflict the earth, and the blessings which are diffused along with them, he conducted him from visible to invisible nature, and initiated him in the sublime truths which no mortal hand can unfold to mortal eye. He taught him that, amidst the revolutions and agitations of mortals, the Almighty pursues his course with an equal pace, surrounded by glory, and that no vice, no error, is permanent in the vast space of the creation, from the first to the last of the stars. "Suffering," said he, "awakens the activity of the soul—in the bosom of misfortune arise the noblest sentiments that honour humanity. Torn from his country, on a foreign soil, the witness of his labour and his sorrows, the slave gathers up a treasure for eternity. His mind receives impressions containing the embryo seeds of knowledge dear to the inhabitants of heaven; in his oppressed and sorrowing mind, a thousand virtues will one day spring up, and amongst them, that which crowns all—the gentlest—the most sublime—the fulfilment of the law—the perfection of humanity—namely, *that holy love* which extends to all beings, and embraces even one's enemy. And that enemy, covered with the wounds which vice has inflicted on his moral nature, will one day rise from his degradation; his punishment is but the delay of happiness: he travels by a steep, thorny, and winding road, which recedes from heaven, and nevertheless leads to it. In the order established by Supreme Wisdom, perversity engenders misery; misery gives birth to repentance; the fruit of repentance is virtue; that of virtue is happiness; and in the bosom of happiness arises a virtue increasing in purity and sublimity. Every earthly discord is changed into divine harmony, and every complaint into a hymn of joy."

Seized with the holy tremor announcing the presence of God, Las-Casas attentively listened to the angel, and became acquainted with the mysteries of divine love. At this moment a veil seemed to fall from his eyes. The darkness of ignorance, with all its horrible phantoms, suddenly vanished; the day seemed to break to him on the eternal world, and to disclose to him all its secrets; the light arose, pure, serene, and brilliant, and an ecstacy of joy an-

nounced its approach. Still, however, every fibre of the old man trembled with grief and compassion; his joy was mingled with sorrow, and tears flowed from his eyes. "Oh, Thou!" he exclaimed, falling on his knees, and raising his eyes and hands toward the Sanctuary—"Oh, Thou whom I sought in my childhood, and who now revealest thyself to me, such as thou art, all grace, all mercy, all love!—my Father, and not my Judge; the Father of all thy creatures—the Father of these numberless worlds, the work of thy hands! Thou who hast raised a rich harvest of salvation, even where my ignorance had planted the seeds of ruin; who makest me feel in my inmost soul, that to belong to thee is happiness, and to see thy greatness is the summit of bliss; Thou who rewardest me with ecstacies of joy for the mere will to do good—Alas! for the mere will, with powerless efforts to effect it!—Thou who hast ordained that even errors should be transformed into new and fertile sources of bliss;—Supreme, incomparable Being! ..... But I can no longer regard thee; my soul sinks!"—His tongue now became mute. The angel extended his hand toward him, and with a look beaming with divine love, pressed him to his bosom, and said, "My brother! . . ."

Here Las-Casas awoke. On raising his eyes, he beheld his terrestrial angel, his faithful guardian, who had approached his bedside to listen whether he still breathed. He attempted to speak; he wished to describe the happiness he had experienced; but his eyelids closed, his head sunk on his pillow, and his limbs were already stiffened by the icy hand of Death. The pious monk, in an agony of grief, kissed his cold forehead, and bathed it with tears. Then clasping his hands, and raising his eyes to heaven, he prayed that his own death might resemble that of his venerable friend—for Las-Casas had gently yielded up his breath like a child on its mother's bosom; and the peace of heaven still smiled on his countenance amid the shades of death.

From the New Monthly Magazine.

On the Living Novelists.

MATURIN.

The author of Montorio and of Bertram is unquestionably a person gifted with no ordinary powers. He has a quick sensibility—a penetrating and intuitive acuteness—and an unrivalled vigour and felicity of language, which enable him at one time to attain the happiest condensation of thought, and at others to pour forth a stream of eloquence, rich, flowing, and deep, chequered with images of delicate loveliness, or darkened by broad shadows cast from objects of stern and adamantine majesty. Yet, in common with many other potent spirits of the present time, he fails to excite within us any pure and lasting sympathy. We do not, on reading his works, feel that we have entered on a precious and imperishable treasure. They dazzle, they delight, they surprise, and they weary us—we lay them down with a vague admiration for the author, and try to shake off their influence as we do the impressions of a feverish dream. It is not thus that we receive the productions of genuine and holy bards—of Shakspeare, of Milton, of Spenser, or of Wordsworth—whose far-reaching imaginations come home to our hearts, who become the companions of our sweetest moods, and with whom we long to "set up our everlasting rest." Their creations are often nearest to our hearts when they are furthest removed from the actual experience of our lives. We travel on the bright tracts which their genius reveals to us as safely and with as sure and fond a tread as along the broad highway of the world. When the regions which they set before us are the most distant from our ordinary perceptions, we yet seem at home in them, their wonders are strangely familiar to us, and the scene, overspread with a consecrating and lovely lustre, breaks on us, not as a wild fantastic novelty, but as a revived recollection of some holier life, which the soul rejoices thus delightfully to recognize.

Not thus do the works of Mr. Maturin—original and surprising as they often are—affect us. They have no fibres in them which entwine with the heartstrings, and which keep their hold until the golden chords of our sensibility and imagination themselves are broken. They pass by us sometimes like gorgeous phantoms, sometimes like "horrible shadows and unreal mockeries," which seem to elude us because they are not of us. When we follow him closest, he introduces us into a region where all is unsatisfactory and unreal—the chaos of principles, fancies, and passions—where mightiest elements are yet floating without order, where appearances between substance and shadow perpetually harass us, where visionary forms beckon us through painful avenues, and on approach sink into despicable realities, and pillars which looked ponderous and immoveable at a distance, melt at the touch into air, and are

found to be only masses of vapour and of cloud. He neither raises us to the skies, nor "brings his angels down," but astonishes by a phantasmagoria of strange appearances, sometimes scarcely distinguishable in member, joint, or limb, but which, when most clearly defined, come not near us, nor claim kindred by a warm and living touch. This chill remoteness from humanity is attended by a general want of harmony and proportion in the whole—by a wild excursiveness of sensibility and thought—which add to its ungenial influence, and may be traced to the same causes.

If we were disposed to refer these defects to one general source, we should attribute them to the want of an imagination proportionate to sensibility and to mastery of language in the writer's mind, or to his comparative neglect of that most divine of human faculties. It is edifying to observe how completely the nature of this power is mistaken by many who profess to decide on matters of taste. They regard it as something wild and irregular, the reverse of truth, nature, and reason, which is divided from insanity only by "a thin partition," and which, uncontrolled by sterner powers, forms the essence of madness. They think it abounds in the speeches of Mr. Phillips, because they are so crowded with tawdry and superfluous epithets—in the discourses of Dr. Chalmers, because they deal so largely in infinite obscurities that there is no room for a single image—and in the poems of lord Byron, because his characters are so unlike all beings which have ever existed. Far otherwise thought Spenser, when he represented the laurel as the meed—not of poets insane—but "of poets SAGE." Pure imagination is, indeed, the deep eye of the profoundest wisdom. It is opposed to reason, not in its results, but in its process; it does not demonstrate truth only because it sees it. There are vast and eternal realities in our nature, which reason proves to exist—which sensibility "feels after and finds"—and which imagination beholds in clear and solemn vision, and pictures with a force and vividness which assures their existence even to ungifted mortals. Its subjects are the true, the universal, and the lasting. Its distinguishing property has no relation to dimness, or indistinctness, or dazzling radiance, or turbulent confusedness, but is the power of setting all things in the clearest light, and bringing them into perfect harmony. Like the telescope, it does not only magnify celestial objects, but brings them nearer to us. Of all the faculties it is the severest and the most unerring. Reason may beguile with splendid sophistry; sensibility may fatally misguide; but if imagination exists at all, it must exhibit only the real. A mirror can no more reflect an object which is not before it, than the imagination can show the false and the baseless. By revealing to us its results in the language of imagery, it gives to them almost the evidence of the senses. If the analogy between an idea and its physical exponent is not complete, there is no effort of imagination—if it is, the truth is seen, and felt, and enjoyed, like the colours and forms of the material universe. And this effect is produced not only with the greatest possible certainty, but in the fewest possible words. Yet even when this is done—when the illustration is not only the most enchanting, but the most convincing, of proofs—the writer is too often contemptuously depreciated as *flowery*, by the advocates of mere reason. Strange chance! that he who has embodied truth in a living image, and thus rendered it visible to the intellectual perceptions, should be confounded with those who conceal all sense and meaning beneath mere *verbiage* and fragments of disjointed metaphor.

Thus the products of genuine imagination are "all compact." It is, indeed, only the compactness and harmony of its pictures which give to it its name or its value. To discover that there are mighty elements in humanity—to observe that there are bright hues and graceful forms in the external world—and to know the fitting names of these—is all which is required to furnish out a rich stock of spurious imagination to one who aspires to the claim of a wild and irregular genius. For him a dictionary is a sufficient guide to Parnassus. It is only by representing those intellectual elements in their finest harmony—by combining those hues and forms in the fairest pictures—or by making the glorious combinations of external things the symbols of truth and moral beauty—that imagination really puts forth its divine energies. We do not charge on Mr. Maturin that he is destitute of power to do this, or that he does not sometimes direct it to its purest uses. But his sensibility is so much more quick and subtle, than his authority over his impressions is complete; the flow of his words so much more copious and facile than the throng of images on his mind; that he too often confounds us with unnumbered snatches and imperfect gleams of beauty, or astonishes us by an outpouring of eloquent bombast, instead of enrich-

ing our souls with distinct and vivid conceptions. Like many other writers of the present time—especially of his own country—he does not wait until the stream which young enthusiasm sets loose shall work itself clear, and calmly reflect the highest heavens. His creations bear any stamp but that of truth and soberness. He sees the glories of the external world, and the mightier wonders of man's moral and intellectual nature, with a quick sense, and feels them with an exquisite sympathy—but he gazes on them in "very drunkenness of heart," and becomes giddy with his own indistinct emotions, till all things seem confounded in a gay bacchanalian dance, and assume strange fantastic combinations; which, when transferred to his works, startle for a moment, but do not produce that "sober certainty of waking bliss" which real imagination assures. There are two qualities necessary to form a truly imaginative writer—a quicker and an intenser feeling than ordinary men possess for the beautiful and the sublime, and the calm and meditative power of regulating, combining, and arranging its own impressions, and of distinctly bodying forth the final results of this harmonizing process. Where the first of these properties exists, the last is perhaps attainable by that deep and careful study which is more necessary to a poet than to any artist who works in mere earthly materials. But this study many of the most gifted of modern writers unhappily disdain; and if mere sale and popularity are their objects, they are right; for in the multitude the wild, the disjointed, the incoherent, and the paradoxical, which are but for a moment, necessarily awaken more immediate sensation than the pure and harmonious, which are destined to last while nature and the soul shall endure.

It is easy to perceive how it is that the imperfect creations of men of sensibility and of eloquence strike and dazzle more at the first, than the completest works of truly imaginative poets. A perfect statue —a temple fashioned with exactest art—appear less, at a mere glance, from the nicety of their proportions. The vast majority of readers, in an age like our's, have neither leisure nor taste to seek and ponder over the effusions of holiest genius. They must be awakened into admiration by something new, and strange, and surprising; and the more remote from their daily thoughts and habits—the more fantastical and daring—the effort, the more will it please, because the more will it rouse them. Thus a man who will exhibit some impossible combination of heroism and meanness—of virtue and of vice—of heavenly love and infernal malignity and baseness—will receive their wonder and their praise. They call this POWER, which is in reality the most pitiable weakness. It is because a writer has not imagination enough to exhibit in new forms the universal qualities of nature and the soul, that he takes some strange and horrible anomaly as his theme. Incompetent to the divine task of rendering beauty "a simple product of the common day," he tries to excite emotion by disclosing the foulest recess of the foulest heart. As he strikes only one feeling, and that coarsely and ungently, he appears to wield a mightier weapon than he whose harmonious beauty sheds its influence equably over the whole of the sympathies. That which touches with strange commotion, and mere violence on the heart, but leaves no image there, seems to vulgar spirits more potent than the faculty which applies to it all perfect figures, and leaves them to sink gently into its fleshly tablets to remain there for ever. Yet surely that which merely shakes is not equal even in power to that which impresses. The wild disjointed part may be more amazing to a diseased perception than the well compacted whole; but it is the nice balancing of properties, the soft blending of shades, and the all-pervading and reconciling light shed over the harmonious imagination, which take off the sense of rude strength that alone is discernible in its naked elements. Is there more of heavenly power in seizing from among the tumult of chaos and eternal night, strange and fearful abortions, or in brooding over the vast abyss, and making it pregnant with life, and glory, and joy? Is it the higher exercise of human faculties to represent the frightful discordances of passion, or to show the grandeurs of humanity in that majestic repose which is at once an anticipation and a proof of its eternal destiny? Is transitory vice—the mere accident of the species—and those vices too which are the rarest and most appalling of all its accidents—or that good which is its essence, and which never can perish, fittest for the uses of the bard? Shall he desire to haunt the caves which lie lowest on the banks of Acheron, or the soft bowers watered by "Siloa's brook, that flows fast by the oracle of God?"

Mr. Maturin gave decisive indications of a morbid sensibility and a passionate eloquence outrunning his imaginative faculties, in the commencement of his literary career. His first romance, the "Family of

Montorio," is one of the wildest and strangest of all "false creations proceeding from the heat-oppressed brain." It is for the most part a tissue of magnificent yet unappalling horrors. Its great faults, as a work of amusement, are the long and unrelieved series of its gloomy and marvellous scenes, and the unsatisfactory explanation of them all, as arising from mere human agency. This last error he borrowed from Mrs. Ratcliffe, to whom he is far inferior in the economy of terrors, but whom he greatly transcends in the dark majesty of his style. As his events are far more wild and wondrous than her's, so his development is necessarily far more incredible and vexatious. There is, in this story, a being whom we are long led to believe is not of this world—who speaks in the tones of the sepulchre, glides through the thickest walls, haunts two distant brothers in their most secret retirements through their strange wanderings, leads one of his victims to a scene which he believes infernal, and there terrifies him with sights of the wildest magic—and who after all this, and after really vindicating to the fancy his claim to the supernatural by the fearful cast of his language—is discovered to be a low impostor, who has produced all by the aid of poor tricks and secret passages! Where is the policy of this? Unless by his power the author had given a credibility to magic through four-fifths of his work, it never could have excited any feeling but that of impatience or of scorn. And when we have surrendered ourselves willingly to his guidance—when we have agreed to believe impossibilities at his bidding—why does he reward our credence with derision, and tacitly reproach us for not having detected his idle mockeries? After all, too, the reason is no more satisfied than the fancy; for it would be a thousand times easier to believe in the possibility of spiritual influences, than in a long chain of mean contrivances, no one of which could ever succeed. The first is but one wonder, and that one to which our nature has a strange leaning; the last are numberless, and have nothing to reconcile them to our thoughts. In submitting to the former we contentedly lay aside our reasoning faculties; in approaching the latter our reason itself is appealed to at the moment when it is insulted. Great talent is, however, unquestionably exhibited in this singular story. A stern justice breathes solemnly through all the scenes in the devoted castle. "Fate sits on its dark battlements, and frowns." There is a spirit of deep philosophy in the tracing of the gradual influence of patricidal thoughts on the hearts of the brothers, which would finely exhibit the danger of dallying with evil fancies, if the subject were not removed so far from all ordinary temptations. Some of the scenes of horror, if they were not accumulated until they wear out their impression, would produce an effect inferior to none in the works of Ratcliffe or of Lewis. The scene in which Filippo escapes from the assassins, deserves to be ranked with robber scenes in the Monk and Count Fathom. The diction of the whole is rich and energetic—not, indeed, flowing in a calm beauty which may glide on for ever—but impetuous as a mountain torrent, which, though it speedily passes away, leaves behind it no common spoils—

> "Depositing upon the silent shore
> Of memory, images and gentle thoughts
> Which cannot die, and will not be destroyed."

"The Wild Irish Boy" is, on the whole, inferior to Montorio, though it served to give a farther glimpse into the vast extent of the author's resources. "The Milesian" is, perhaps, the most extraordinary of his romances. There is a bleak and misty grandeur about it, which, in spite of its glaring defects, sustains for it an abiding place in the soul. Yet never, perhaps, was there a more unequal production—alternately exhibiting the grossest plagiarism and the wildest originality—now swelling into offensive bombast, and anon disclosing the simplest majesty of nature, fluctuating with inconstant ebb between the sublime and the ridiculous, the delicate and the revolting. "Women, or Pour et Contre," is less unequal, but we think, on the whole, less interesting than the author's earlier productions. He should not venture, as in this work he has done, into the ordinary paths of existence. His persons, if not cast in a high and heroic mould, have no stamp of reality upon them. The reader of this work, though often dazzled and delighted, has a painful feeling that the characters are shadowy and unreal, like that which is experienced in dreams. They are unpleasant and tantalizing likenesses, approaching sufficiently near to the true to make us feel what they would be, and lament what they are. Eva, Zaira, the maniac mother, and the group of Calvinists, have all a resemblance to nature—and sometimes to nature at its most passionate or its sweetest—but they look as at a distance from us, as though between us and them there were some veil, or discolouring

medium, to baffle and perplex us. Still the novel is a splendid work; and gives the feeling that its author has "riches fineless" in store, which might delight as well as astonish the world, if he would cease to be their slave, and become their master.

In the narrow boundaries of the Drama the redundancies of Mr. Maturin have been necessarily corrected. In this walk, indeed, there seems reason to believe that his genius would have grown purer, as it assumed a severer attitude; and that he would have sought to attain high and true passion, and lofty imagination, had he not been seduced by the admiration unhappily lavished on lord Byron's writings. The feverish strength, the singular blending of good and evil, and the spirit of moral paradox, displayed in these works, were congenial with his tastes, and aroused in him the desire to imitate. "Bertram," his first and most successful tragedy, is a fine piece of writing, wrought out of a nauseous tale, and rendered popular, not by its poetical beauties, but by the violence with which it jars on the sensibilities, and awakens the sluggish heart from its lethargy. "Manuel," its successor, feebler, though in the same style, excited little attention, and less sympathy. In "Fredolpho," the author, as though he had resolved to sting the public into a sense of his power, crowded together characters of such matchless depravity, sentiments of such a demoniac cast, and events of such gratuitous horror, that the moral taste of the audience, injured as it had been by the success of similar works, felt the insult, and rose indignantly against it. Yet in this piece were passages of a soft and mournful beauty, breathing a tender air of romance, which led us bitterly to regret that the poet chose to "embower the spirit of a fiend, in mortal paradise of such sweet" song.

We do not, however, despair even yet of the regeneration of our author's taste. There has always been something of humanity to redeem those works in which his genius has been most perverted. There is no deliberate sneering at the disinterested and the pure—no cold derision of human hopes—no deadness to the lonely and the loving, in his writings. His error is that of a hasty trusting to feverish impulses, not of a malignant design. There is far more of the soul of goodness in his evil things, than in those of the noble bard whose example has assisted to mislead him. He does not, indeed, know so well how to place his unnatural characters in imposing attitudes—to work up his morbid sensibilities for sale—or to "build the lofty rhyme" on shattered principles, and the melancholy fragments of hope. But his diction is more rich, his fancy is more fruitful, and his compass of thought and feeling more extensive. Happy shall we be to see him doing justice at last to his powers—studying not to excite the wonder of a few barren readers or spectators, but to live in the hearts of the good of future times—and, to this high end, leaving discord for harmony, the startling for the true, and the evil which, however potent, is but for a season, for the pure and the holy which endure for ever! T. D.

FREDERICK PURSH.

Being a Note to Professor Silliman's Tour between Hartford and Quebec.

July 31, 1820.—The papers have just informed us of the death of the celebrated botanist, Frederick Pursh. He died at Montreal on the 11th inst. after a lingering illness.

When the *efforts and purposes* of a man who has, by useful or splendid labours, attracted the attention of the world, are cut off by death, and his *mortal toil is over*, the mind dwells with an increased interest on circumstances, which might not otherwise have attracted our attention. This is my apology for the following note.

At the town of Sorel, when we were returning to Montreal in the steam boat, Mr. Pursh came on board, and was with us the remainder of the passage. His scientific labours are well known, and the public have pronounced their decided approbation of his beautiful work, the American Flora, published in London in 1814. Mr. Pursh expressed himself very warmly, on the subject of the liberal aid which he received in Europe from scientific men, in the use of their libraries and their herbariums, and in the tender of their private advice and information; he mentioned, particularly, his obligations to sir Joseph Banks and president Smith. He informed me, that he contemplated another tour to Europe, for the purpose of publishing his Flora of Canada, upon which he had been already several years occupied, and expected to be still occupied for several years more. These researches led him much among the savage nations of the northwest and around the great lakes. He went first among them in company with the exploring and trading

parties of the Northwest Company, but fearing to be involved in the consequences of their quarrels, he abandoned their protection, and threw himself, alone and unprotected, upon the generosity of the aborigines. He pursued his toilsome researches month after month, travelling on foot, relying often on the Indians for support, and, of course, experiencing frequently the hunger, exposure, and perils of savage life. But such was the *enthusiasm* of his mind, and his complete devotion to the *ruling passion*, that he thought little of marching, day after day, often with a pack weighing sixty pounds on his shoulders, through forests and swamps, and over rocks and mountains, provided he could discover *a new plant;* great numbers of such he assured me he had found, and that he intended to publish the drawings and descriptions of them in his Canadian Flora. From the Indians, he said, he experienced nothing but kindness, and he often derived from them important assistance: he thought that had they been treated with uniform *justice and humanity* by the whites, they would have always returned the same treatment. He said he much preferred their protection to that of the wandering whites, who, unrestrained by almost any human law, prowl through those immense forests in quest of furs and game. Possibly (without, however, intending any thing disrespectful by the remark,) some mutual sympathies might have been excited, by the fact that Mr. Pursh was himself *a Tartar*, born and educated in Siberia, near Toboltski; and, indeed, he possessed a physiognomy and manner different from that of Europeans, and highly characteristic of his country.

His conversation was full of fire, point and energy; and, although not polished, he was good humoured, frank and generous. He complained that he could not endure the habits of civilized life, and that his health began to be impaired as soon as he became quiet, and was comfortably fed and lodged. He said he must soon "be off again" into the wilderness. His health was then declining, and unfortunately it was but too apparent, that *some* of the measures to which he resorted to sustain it, must eventually prostrate his remaining vigour.

It is to be hoped that his unfinished labours will not be lost, and that although incomplete, they may be published; since, if sufficiently matured, they must add to the stock of knowledge.

Foreign Science.

ANIMAL MAGNETISM.

About thirty years ago, father Hehl, of Vienna, imposed on his countrymen, and indeed on the greater part of the civilized world, a pretended mode of curing all kinds of disease, by means of a sympathetic affection between the sick person and the operator. The remedy was supposed to depend upon the motion of the fingers and the features of the latter: he placed himself immediately before the invalid, whose eyes were to be fixed on his, and performing a number of antic and unmeaning changes, accompanied by various grimaces, or inflections of the principal muscles of the visage. This rarely failed to excite a certain degree of apprehension in the mind of the sick; which by creating a new action in the system, often frightened them into convalescence. That such effects may have been produced among the credulous and timid, we shall not controvert; but on the other hand it is asserted, that numbers have been so far overcome with terror and fatigue (for like Dr. Sangrado the operator was never satisfied while any strength to undergo the process remained), that consequences highly dangerous, and in some instances fatal, were induced. Notwithstanding the obvious folly of the pursuit, there were found many gentlemen of great respectability and talents among its followers; hence a certain degree of credit was established, and there were not wanting persons foolish enough to certify many cases, and to give a celebrity which was in a very short time found to be misapplied. It is a lamentable case that impositions of this nature are tolerated long enough to answer the purpose of the fabricator and to encourage others in similar deceptions. Our readers may recollect many instances of notorious character, amongst which the metallic tractors, which were at one time asserted to be allied to metallic magnetism, perhaps may serve as an illustration and proof. [*Nicholson's Encyc.*

Annual quantity of Salt raised from the bowels of the Earth in Europe.—It would appear from a careful examination of the most accurate returns, that the European salt mines and salt springs, afford annually from twenty-five to thirty millions of hundred weights of salt. [*Edinb. Phil. Journ.*

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

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VOL. IV. Philadelphia, November 11, 1820. No. 20.

Record.

The Missouri legislature has assembled It was resolved, that it is inexpedient at the present session to proceed any further in legislation, than is necessary for the organization of the government and the appointment of its officers.

MERCHANTS' CONVENTION.

At a convention of delegates from the principal Atlantic states, representing the merchants and others interested in commerce, assembled at Philadelphia, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted, and ordered to be published:

1. *Resolved*, as the opinion of this convention, that a system of commercial restrictions is unfavourable to industry, and that sound policy dictates the least practicable restraint upon individual enterprise and exertion.

2. *Resolved*, That the greatest possible revenue required by the national interests, should be collected from commerce, on account of the ease, economy, and certainty of its collection; but that this cannot be effected but by the imposition of such a rate of duties as will not be a restraint upon importations nor furnish an inducement to smuggling.

3. *Resolved*, That by every important change of the tariff, the nation sustains an immense loss of productive labour. A well digested tariff, therefore, should never be changed, except for the purpose of equal protection to the different interests of the country, or to provide for the public wants.

4. *Resolved*, That we consider the production of public revenue the legitimate object of legislation on the subject of duties.

5. *Resolved*, That the operation of the proposed tariff would be greatly to diminish our exports of agricultural products; greatly to reduce the value of those remaining in the country; greatly to lessen importations by reducing our means of purchasing both at home and abroad—almost to destroy the revenue arising from commerce; to lower the price of labour, and to increase the profits of the rich manufacturer while it lessens the profits and wages of every other individual in the community.

6. *Resolved*, That the adoption of the proposed tariff would produce very extensive smuggling, and the consequent necessary imposition of internal duties, and heavy direct taxes, which would eventually cause a reaction throughout the whole community, and involve, in one common ruin, all the manufactories in the country.

7. *Resolved*, That the abolition of drawbacks would destroy the carrying trade in foreign commodities, hitherto a source of great enterprise and wealth to our citizens; occasion immense losses to the commercial, manufacturing, and agricultural interests; and deeply affect the public revenue.

8. *Resolved*, That a law requiring cash payments of duties would materially affect the enterprise of our citizens, by limiting the operations of the active merchants, increasing the price of foreign commodities to the consumer, and favouring a monopoly to the rich, contrary to the best interests of the country.

9. *Resolved*, That if Congress should not consider it expedient to repeal the duties heretofore laid for any other purpose than the production of public revenue, it cannot be either politic or just, to impose other and higher duties, the probable effects of which would be to benefit manufacturers at the expense of every other class of the citizens.

10. *Resolved*, That the project of rendering ourselves independent of foreign nations, is founded in mistaken views of national independence. Manufacturing nations must always be more dependent on their customers, than those cultivating the soil on the purchasers of their produce.

The convention also unanimously adopted a memorial to Congress, which memorial it was decided as a matter of decorum, should not be published until it has been presented.

WILLIAM BAYARD,
President of the Convention.
JOHN VAUGHAN, Secretary.

Philadelphia, Nov. 4, 1820.

From the London Morning Chronicle, October 4.

According to an article from Naples of the 12th ult. it had been announced by telegraph, that Sicily has submitted to the constitutional government.

Accounts from Madrid of the 19th ult. state, that the Spanish bishops who had assumed a part of the power of the inquisition, in prohibiting the circulation of certain works, had been forbidden by a decree of the kingdom from exercising any such functions.

A "National Dinner" was held at the Crown and Anchor tavern, in London, on the 2d of October, "to celebrate the triumph of civil liberty in Spain, Naples, Sicily, and Portugal." Sir Robert Wilson in the chair. The names of 122 stewards are published. Among them are the duke of Leicester, sir F. Burdett, Mr. Bennett, M. P., Mr. Denman, M. P., &c.

At the great dinner given in London on the 2d of October, "to celebrate the triumph of liberty in Spain, Portugal, and Naples," the band of music played *first* the *Marseilles Hymn*, and when the toast "the King" was announced, *hisses* were mixed with applause.

The British have ordered a small squadron of observation to Lisbon. Marshal Beresford probably arrived at Lisbon in September, in the Vengeur, 74, from the Brazils.

A new conspiracy in the Ionian islands against the English has been detected.

The law of primogeniture and entailment, has been suppressed by the Spanish Cortes, by a large majority.

A Neapolitan decree deprives prince Castelcicala, ambassador at Paris, of all his employments, pay, and emoluments held of government, because he has refused to take the oath to the new constitution.

Another deprives Carlo Ruffo, the son of Castelcicala, of the post of secretary to the embassy at Madrid, for the same reasons.

A committee of ladies has been formed at Nottingham, to visit the prisons upon Mrs. Fry's plan.

St. Domingo.—By the arrival of the schooner Weymouth, captain Mason, from Port-au-Prince, we learn that CHRISTOPHE, the emperor, died on the 5th July last. The intelligence of his death had not been officially announced; it was said, that it was kept from the public with a view of placing his son on the throne. A revolt having taken place among the troops, the death of the emperor was made known. The troops at St. Marks, consisting of 6000 men, sent a deputation to Port-au-Prince, announcing the emperor's death, asking protection of President Boyer, who, astonished at the intelligence, sent one of his aids to ascertain whether it was correct. The officer returned with a confirmation of the fact, and Boyer immediately set off, and entered St. Marks at the head of 18,000 men. Exertions were making to fit out all the armed vessels belonging to Boyer, and it was generally believed that the President would "subjugate the territory of his old enemy without difficulty."

It is stated that a body of Christian Jews have lately been discovered in Persia, in the province of Hedesbegan, in Mesopotamia. Their whole number is about ten thousand. "They have an archbishop and three bishops. The archbishop resides at Mosul; one of the bishops at Chorasbad; another at Meredeen, three days journey from Mosul; and the third at Diarbekir. By the Mahomedans they are called Nazarenes; by the Arabs, Syrians: but among themselves Ebraims, or Beni Israel; which name denotes their relation to the ancient Jewish Christian church, as does also their language; the Lord's prayer and the apostles' creed being very like to the original Hebrew. They have no connexion whatever with the Greek or Roman churches.

"They hold the doctrine of the trinity in unity; and declare Jesus Christ to be the way, the truth, and the life. They acknowledge only the two sacraments, but both in the full sense and import of the Protestant church.

"They have at Chorasbad, a large church, nearly of the size and appearance of the Scotch kirk at Madras, which is a fine building. For fear of the Mahomedans, they meet for public worship between the hours of five and seven on Sunday mornings, and in the evenings between six and eight.

"The country is said to be covered with gardens, abounding with a great variety of fruits. The men are chiefly engaged in cultivation, and the women in spinning."

Within the last ten years, separate schools have been established for boys and girls, in which are taught the four gospels, the psalms, and other books. The scholars are taken to church morning and evening. [*N. Y. Daily Ad.*

Miscellany.

The following notice of lord Byron, is evidently the production of one who had looked at his works on the dark side. There is, however, so much force in the critique, that our readers will find themselves well rewarded by its perusal.

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CRITIQUE ON MODERN POETS.

Qui proficit in literis, deficit tamen in moribus, magis deficit quam proficit.

A just estimate of national morality, it is said, may always be made from the state of national literature. The proposition is not universally true: where literature is thinly diffused, the morals of the country must be measured by another standard; but when a country is in so high a state of civilization, that literature has become an occupation instead of an amusement—when books are so rapidly circulated and so universally read, that half the stock of the nation's ideas are borrowed from its writers—when *men begin to talk more of what is written than of what is done*, and authors come to legislate to our opinions and our passions, *then* the state of our national literature, and the tone of the popular writers, become objects of the deepest interest; for as the people of a country read, so will they feel—and as they feel, so will they act.

It is this circumstance that has forced my attention to the present favourites of literature. I am a man advanced in life, and neither irascible nor jealous, particularly as I have nothing to hope or to fear, to win or to lose. I enter the arena not without emotion, but wholly without anxiety; and in the conflict, I call to the public to "strike—but hear." I have seen the strong sense and caustic spirit of the writer

of the Baviad employed below their powers to "whip me those vermin," who five-and-twenty years ago stained paper with the "ropy drivel of rheumatic brains," and break on the wheel the butterfly forms of Anna Matilda, Laura Maria, and Della Crusca, cum multis aliis; I have seen the powerful club of the Anti-Jacobin Magazine wielded with resistless effect against the hydra-monster of the German school, and demolish, blow after blow, and every blow a death, all the sprouting imps of the brood, who, in the language of the Darwinian school, "breathed the soft hiss, or tried the fainter yell." But these were like the tormenting insects we brush away in an evening's walk—they teaze and they buzz, but there is no strength in their wing, and no lasting venom in their sting; they "come like shadows, so depart." But now I feel like one who, after having got rid of those insects that tormented him, and hoping that the close of his progress may be unmolested, sees to his terror and astonishment a meteor rising above the horizon, "perplexing him with fear of change;" a meteor, the elements of whose orbit are beyond all calculation, whose fiery hair shakes "pestilence," though not war, and who retires troubled and anxious how the night so portentously ushered in may end.

It must be obvious that I allude to lord Byron—a phenomenon to whom the literature of no age can produce a parallel: would that he were not a greater phenomenon, if possible, in the moral than in the intellectual world—would that the inscription which posterity must place on the pedestal to which modern idolatry has raised him, were not to be like that placarded on the statue of Louis XV.: "Sans foi, sans loi, et sans entrailles." I feel his genius—I know his popularity—I know his power. I care not; power, when employed in the cause of evil, only calls for a louder cry of denunciation, if it may be resisted; or of deprecation, if it may be averted. I will say what I think, and let his idolaters *think what they say*. I am aware of the danger I incur in attacking the popular idol; but I heed it not. He is like the image in the dream of the king of Babylon—he is part gold and silver, but part brass and clay—and such an image must fall and be broken in pieces.

Time and morality will deal alternate blows at its perishable frame, like the giant statues with their flails in the visionary adventure of Roderic. The blows of the former are slow; the blows of the latter are sometimes decisive at once.—What has become of Rochester, and Sedley, and Vanburgh, and Wycherly? Nay, who reads Dryden now without wishing his pages expurgated? *Immoral poetry was never long-lived.* Let the noble writer remember that—and let his admirers remember it too—a brief and forced existence is bestowed on it from the hot-bed of contemporary pruriency of feeling; we wonder at its rapid growth—we are dazzled by its glaring colours—are overcome by its oppressive odour; but we sicken while we praise, and before we have ceased to praise, the object of our admiration has sickened too. There is, I allow, a fearful excess of genius and passion, when united, that obliterates for a moment the distinction between right and wrong, and makes us half believe, that vice so dignified is almost virtue, and virtue so overshadowed almost loses its lustre. But this union of powerful talent and intense feeling is very rare; the Jewish theology distinguished well between the spirits who know most, and the spirits who love most. Lord Byron has no excuse from that dangerous union of mental enthusiasm, and heart-born passion, that may lead far astray the minds of youthful poets when they love, but leaves behind it a glorious and fearful light, like that which follows the erratic path of the meteor.

There is a generous and almost noble vice in that superb devotion, that "proud humility," with which we prostrate ourselves before the object of our earthly adoration; it has (I speak it with reverence) many of the characteristics of true religion; it has the same spirit of self-resignation, of humiliation, of profound abjection of spirit, of an utter prostration of all its powers, mental and bodily, before the idol for whom it is dearer to die than to live for the first object on earth—such is the enthusiasm of youthful passion. Lord Byron has nothing of this; he makes love like a sensualist, or a bandit: he loves only to enjoy, or to ravage; he stoops not to admire the brilliant colours, or to inhale the delicious odour of the flower; if he stoops, it is to crush, to trample, and to destroy; he never remarks or commends one single moral or mental quality in the object of his passion; he appreciates her with all the callous and calculating brutality of a slave-merchant (in the miserable countries in which he wastes his existence,) by her locks that sweep the ground, or her naked feet that outshine the marble; he is a Mahomet (vascillating between lust and ferocity,)

who would grasp the bright locks of his Irene, and strike off her head before his bashaws *pour un coup de theatre.* The man knows nothing of passion.

There is also a pardonable enthusiasm in youth; the brilliant and seductive colouring with which imagination paints the deformity of life—it is venial—it is almost justifiable to represent it to others in this light.

We have not to fear that the deception will be continued: perhaps we have to fear it may be dispelled too soon. In travelling through the desert of life, if a delirious companion points out to us a *mirage*, and invites us to drink, we cannot but sympathize with the delusion we almost wish to partake of. Reality is equally insufficient for the demands of the imagination and of the heart, and poets, the slaves of both, may be forgiven if they paint with glowing and exaggerated touches a world of their own, a world of *love*, and music, and fragrance—of flowers that steal their balmy spoils from Paradise, and airs that "lap us in Elysium;" and if they dwell too much on the *first* of these exquisite elements of their Paradise, we pardon them, for we feel that life has already undeceived *us*, and will soon undeceive *them;* they will learn that hatred is much more the business of the world than love; that in life, to speak the language of the schools, suffering is the *essence*, and joy the *accident.*

Almost the first strains of every poet have been devoted to Love, but his latter, or at least the greater part of his works, are dedicated to Grief. Even the muse of Moore (the loosest of modern poets) has latterly changed her garb and her accent, as the French say, *to throw herself into religion.* It is said she can accommodate herself even to the monotonous psalmodizing of a Hebrew synagogue—can in a fine *la Valiere* style resign the luxuries and magnificence of the court, embellished by her charms, and polluted by her depravity, for the coarse weeds and chilling austerity of a Carmelite penitent; or, to speak in a more awful metaphor, we hope the harlot has converted her dearly bought gains into the *price of the ointment of her conversion;* has bowed at her Saviour's feet, and wept there, and wiped them with those rich and redundant tresses, so often garnished with meretricious decorations, and displayed as the popular banner around which vice and voluptuousness were summoned to rally—tresses which should have rather streamed like the hair of Berenice, the ornament of earthly loveliness, and the symbol of celestial invitation—the light of earth, and the star of heaven. Youthful poets have had their errors, but they have had their reformation; the acute susceptibility, and feverish desire of excitement, that led them far astray, was a pledge of their happy return—the pendulum touched by no mortal hand vibrates beyond all mortal calculation, and the writer who set out in his triumphant career of folly, pruriency, and vice, returns from his *alternate* oscillation, purged, purified, and sanctified. None but minds of power can prove these extremes; all minds of power in their turn have proved them; they have erred, and are bid by the voice of man and God to "go and sin no more." The muse of Byron sets out at once in the extreme; her language is blasphemy, her character misanthropy, her passion hatred, her religion despair. I have before spoken of that desert in which other writers have tried to rear the flower, or to flatter with the *mirage.* The horrors of the desert are not enough for this writer: he aggravates them by breathing over its wilds the icy Sarsar wind of death, and watching in its withering hiss the echoes of that blast which announces the annihilating desolation of his own powerful and blasted mind; in the breath that exhales from his pages, no flower of life can bloom—no verdure can flourish—no animal can live; the heart and its passions, life and its purposes, are alike suspended; nothing of creation can prosper; "the icy air burns fierce, and *cold* performs the effect of fire." What becomes of the convert of his poetical creed?—(*poetical creed*, for he has no other)—the victim gazes around him, wonders why, or for what he lives—love is illusion—nature a name—religion a farce—and futurity a jest; the convert bows, believes in—nothing—"dies, and makes no sign." But "God forgive" *the author.* In writing of lord Byron, do I dare to deny or depreciate the genius of the first poet of the age? No: I were unworthy to be his meanest reader did I not confess, to his *immortal dishonour* (let not those words be lightly esteemed,) that he is a man whose intellectual powers might, like those of the ancient mathematician, shake the world from its place—God grant he may never find his πᾶ στῶ—or we may tremble for the dissolution of the moral universe. I grant him genius "*beyond the potentiality of intellectual avarice;*" imagination that exhausts worlds, and then imagines new—an eloquence of poetry that might draw after it the third part of heaven's host, were they

yet untempted—an imperial command of the whole region of poetry from its highest summit to its lowest declivity—an eye, whose reach extending beyond the range described by Shakspeare himself, scorns the restraint of that "proud limitary cherub," and glances not only from heaven to earth, but from heaven to hell—a felicity, richness, a variety of poetical modulation, for which nothing is too lofty or too low, from the satire to the sonnet, from the epic to the ballad; which can combine and echo in the same lines misanthropy and mirth, levity and despair—that like the satanic host, when assembled in council, can counteract or expand its dimensions at will, can to "smallest forms reduce its shape immense, and be at large"—but still "amid the hall of that infernal court"—where he presides as the master demon—the god of hell—in all the dazzling glory of omnipotent depravity—the mind sinks under the task of eulogizing, or describing, or even imagining the powers of that "man—almighty" who, like his prototype in "Kehama," plunges from the heaven he has violated, to the hell he has obtained the empire of, and deserves to reign over.

I would accumulate on him every expression that was ever dictated, uttered, or extorted, by the enthusiasm of praise, or the devotion of admiration; but when I had done so, I should feel I had been only heaping coals of fire on his head.

Every talent so depraved becomes a crime; the intellectual powers rise up in judgment against their betrayer; every line (however its echo may be drowned by infatuated praise) has a voice that says, "Why hast thou thus dealt with thy servant?"—praise is the bitterest satire, and admiration a horrible and hollow mockery. I know no exaltation more terrible than intellectual eminence thus seated like the regicides of old in a chair of torture, crowned with a circle of burning metal, and whose anointing turns to poison as it drops on the head of the usurper, while all the subject talents that should "put to their mouths the sounding alchemy," turning away from the pomp, "plead trumpet tongued against the deep damnation" of their apostate sovereign, and their own abused and prostituted energies.

But I have spoken enough of lord Byron, let him now speak for himself. The end of all poetry is to instruct or to please. He who seeks either from the perusal of lord Byron, must have a singular taste. He must be prepared to look for it in the mingled and chaotic gloom of infidelity, misanthropy, political scepticism, (the unfailing and dangerous companion of both,) and the avowed and ostentatious abandonment of every moral principle, social duty, and domestic feeling—"whatsoever things are pure, are lovely, are of good report—if there be any virtue, and if there be any praise," his reader must invert the rule of a writer very different from lord Byron—he must NOT "think of these things." From lord Byron's own pages I shall select proofs that the charge is not exaggerated. From a poet we expect something to exalt or to delight; we expect that if his subjects be connected with the best interests and feelings of man, his lines shall breathe a lofty spirit of religious devotion, a pure and high love of morality—that they will display all the enthusiasm of patriotism, and the eloquence of passion; that all his public energies will be in their fullest vigour—all his social affections richly harmonized; that the *dulcia vitia* of his lines will rather exaggerate the goods of life than its evils; that his appropriate office will be rather to "open Paradise in the wild," than to aggravate its sterility, defile its fountains, and blast its rare and infrequent spots of verdure; and that when we have closed his pages, we shall wish that life was what he describes it, or at least think better of what he has described so well.

Is this to be found in the poetry of lord Byron? What shall we think of the religion of him who describes death as

> "The first dark day of *nothingness*,
> The last of weakness and distress?"

(The best wish, perhaps, that the reader of these withering lines can give the author, is, that *he may find it so*). Take another specimen of lord Byron's creed from Childe Harold:

> "Even gods must yield, *religions take their turn*,
> 'Twas Jove's, 'tis Mahomet's, and other creeds
> Will rise with other years—till man shall learn
> Vainly his incense soars, his victim bleeds."

Alas! and is there then *no truth?* There is at least one obvious one—that the writer of those lines had no creed, and believed no truth. Take one more specimen, which I almost shudder to trace:

> ——— "The *lyre*,
> *The only heaven* to which earth's children may aspire." *Childe Harold.*

This needs no comment.*

* Also in Harold's song to "Donna Inez," the poet speaks of the mark which the "*fabled* Hebrew wanderer bore." It is useless, however, to multiply passages to prove what is almost self-obvious.

What shall we think of the political principles of the writer whose tergiversation, self-contradiction, and anomalous versatility, put calculation and conjecture to the blush, and make even genius ridiculous? who meanly insults Bonaparte in a lame and halting ode, and then in a *palinode* revives the hopes of his partisans, by the assurance that the violet shall again bloom in their vallies? Abstract principles in politics are, indeed, hardly worth contending for, and historical events become, from the late rapidity with which they have passed before our eyes, remote almost as soon as beheld; and where is the man, except lord Byron, who in the very seat and centre of that most awful struggle in Spain, which he must have witnessed, could write these frigid lines with a hand unshaken and a heart unmoved?

"Three gaudy standards flout the pale blue skies,
The shouts are France, Spain, Albion, Victory,
The foe, the victim, and the fond ally
That fights for all, but *ever fights in vain.*

Time has proved the prediction as false as it was then base and soulless; Albion could not fight in vain—her cause went security for her with Heaven, and she has nobly redeemed her debt.

There is a heartlessness about this man, that is the original sin of his poetry—every line represents and forces it on the reader with frightful fidelity. His country was engaged in a conflict unparalleled in magnitude and difficulty; did he aid her by arm, or brain, or pen? Did he wield a sword in her battles? Did he breathe a word in her senate? No: Rome was on fire, and Nero sat playing on his harp. He neither fought her battles, nor eulogized her heroes.

Tyrtæus himself, lame as he was, could animate by his songs those whom he could not lead to battle. What did our modern Tyrtæus? The champions of his country bled, and he joyously smiled.*

I have not done with his political heresies. I repeat, what shall we think of the man who can address a late illustrious personage in the words:

"Weep, daughter of a royal line,
A sire's disgrace, a realm's decay."

Can wipe away his own tears with the same facility with which he scrawled his Jacobinic whine, and on an event which all his countrymen wept with eyes and hearts overflowing, could only produce the hemistich (half borrowed from Ossian,)

——"In the dust
The fair-haired daughter of the isles is laid!"

The consistency of his literary principles is the same with that of his political—now eulogizing—now abusing. Does he really imagine that we have forgotten his "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers?" or though we have, that Scott and Moore can ever forget it? Yet, on these distinguished writers he has poured abuse as virulent as its retraction was mean: to Moore, under the familiar and colloquial appellative of "my dear Moore," he dedicates one of his poems, no matter which; they are all only lord Byron in various masquing habits, the costume changed—but the same hideous likeness faithfully preserved.

I have done with his want of all religious creed, his desertion of that only anchor of the soul; with his defalcation in all public feeling, or political principle; with his revolting inconsistency in literary opinion.

I pass on to his satire (yes, his satire, for that predominates throughout all his works). Misanthropy is very satirical, and I know no work of lord Byron's that may not properly be termed a satire on religion, morality, social order, or domestic feeling; but *his satire is not satire;* it is only the morbid effusion of universal misanthropy. He lashes not with the hope of causing amendment, but of inflicting pain; the arm is strong, and the scourge is heavy—but there is no benefit in the blow; it might be keenly retorted on him, "strip thy own back."

The genuine satirist selects appropriate subjects, and marks them with *discriminating* severity. Is this the characteristic of his satire, who, feeling nothing too high for his temerity or his talents, and nothing too low for his malignity, sometimes reviles his sovereign, and sometimes lampoons a scullion?* After this, who will value or dread his ostracism?

A charge still heavier remains against his writings; the noblest intellectual power may suffer eclipse under a passing cloud of scepticism; in the strife of the political warfare, a man may sometimes be seen

* What shall we think of the man who, on viewing the "Talavera's plain," the Golgotha of his fallen countrymen, could, with the heartlessness of a French *philosophe*, and the withering sneer of a demon, address them as—

"Ambition's honoured *fools*—*there* let them *rot*."

* No exaggeration; listen to lord Byron's own account of this miserable quarry of a "falcon towering in his pride of place"—

"Born in a garret, *in a kitchen* bred."

among the enemy's ranks, whom we know to be in his heart on the other side. But what writer can assign a cause, (I do not talk of *pleading an excuse*, for that is impossible,) for the predominant impurity of his works, but the predominant depravity of his mind.

The works of lord Byron are just fit to be bound up with those of Cleland and Parny: it is incredible how females can peruse them, or how husbands and fathers can suffer their infamous impurity to shed its venom on the female mind. Look to his Parisina—his Manfred—his—look to all he has ever written.

Crime itself appears too vapid for his taste; simple fornication is not enough, it must be seasoned by adultery, by incest, by every loathsome and ineffable combination. Vice, in its unmodified state, is not sufficiently meretricious.

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With a reference to the atrocious indecencies of Don Juan I shall not pollute my page.

After this, it seems idle to notice lighter defects in lord Byron's compositions; yet while admitting the unquestioned and unquestionable eminence of his genius, I know not any writer whose pages present more frequent instances of violation of every rule of good composition. His rhyme is often harsh, eccentric, and prosaical; if wit be justly defined the discovery of a resemblance between remote objects, no specimen of it occurs in his writings. I know not a single simile or metaphor that ever brought one acquainted with a resemblance unknown before.

He paints from his own mind more than from nature or life; nor from either of the latter does he appear to have learned one beautiful combination, or one powerful contrast. He appears to have looked on nature with the eye of a man who was trying to make the most of a storm, and powerfully depict its thunderings and lightnings; but amidst them he never reverts to the low voice of the Almighty, breaking forth through their terrors, and sending to man *his law, even from the mount that burned with fire.* His imagery often revolts us by its unexpected vulgarity:—

"Devices quaint, and frolics ever new,
Tread on each other's kibes."

His epithets seem selected with wilful absurdity of inappropriateness:—

"*Young-eyed* lewdness"

seems to have been borrowed from the mock-Darwin poetry of the Anti-Jacobin, where we have—

"*Of young-eyed massacres* the *cherub crew.*"

I protest I know not which monster is most loathsome; but, I believe, lord Byron's.

There is also a wretched affectation of classical pedantry, which would be disgusting in the theme of a schoolboy. He raves about Parnassus, and "babbles about green fields" in Greece, as if any man in the present enlargement of intellect and diffusion of knowledge need have recourse to a dead language for either instruction or delight. This affectation leads him to unpardonable puerilities of common-place language. War is Mars, and female patriotism Minerva, and he invokes *the Muse*, and calls the moonlight "pale Hecate's rays;" his Græcomania, seems, however, latterly exchanged for a Turcomania; and the Rose must be "Gul," and the nightingale "Bulbul," and the Moon "Phingari," and his heroines count the beads of a "Comboloio," and fall in love with a "Galiongee." Any thing but a Christian name for lord Byron. "This shows a pitiful ambition in the fool who uses it."

Even amid the richest luxuriance of poetical description, the want of a moral taste withers all its flowers. Moral taste is more closely combined with intellectual taste than lord Byron is disposed to imagine. There is something selfish, physical, and heartless in his enjoyments, as well as his descriptions; and one cannot help feeling revolted by the morbid emasculation of a mind that can abandon the morality and intelligence of England, for the depraved manners and intellectual destitution of that society he can paint so well, *because*—

"He likes to dine on Beccaficos,"

and would rather encounter a cart laden with grapes, than a wagon filled with the healthful harvest of his country.

I know nothing easier than to compose a poem *a la* Byron: I acknowledge, also, I know nothing more difficult than to array it in the decorations of a genius like his. The recipe is easily made: take a (not) human being, load him with every vice and every evil passion that can deface humanity; if these are not sufficient, (as lord Byron generally seems to think,) borrow as much pride, malignity, and blasphemy, as Satan can afford, if Satan *can afford enough;* let him have a mistress, (a hero is "better accommodated than with a wife;") but take care that she be *the wife of another man*—if possible, of *his father*, or, in default of

that, let her, (in some hemistich that seems to falter at its own meaning,) be *insinuated* to be *his sister*. Observe, let this only be insinuated; let a hint of it be dropt as in "Manfred," by a conscious and terrified domestic; for though lord Byron has brought us to bear fornication in the "Giaour," and "Corsair," adultery in "Mazeppa," and even adulterous incest in "Parisina;" this last outrage of natural and social feeling must be breathed in a hint: brothers else might trample on the pages, and sisters commit them to the flames, unless they were fortified by the previous study of the trial of *the Monster Horne*. Let the hero gnash his teeth, rattle his chains, and if there be a thunder storm to be had, hold them close to the grating of his dungeon, in hopes that the lightning may strike both, and, (as Sancho's wife said when the thunder-bolt fell on the pillory, *on such* may it always light,) let him curse, writhe, and agonize through four cantos, and then make a ranting confession to a priest, (aware of the joke of an atheist confessing to a priest,) like the Giaour; or disappear, nobody knows why, and nobody cares where; like Conrad, or like Manfred, battle with the devil to the last breath, and give him, (as he is well able,) the worst of it after all.

In the progress of the composition, three things must be chiefly attended to as constituting the very essence of the admired prototype—first, *let there be no narrative;* the interest derived from watching the progress of animating events, the opposition of character, or the strife of conflicting interests and passions, must be altogether neglected or effaced; there must be no variations of light and shade, no soft gradations of colouring, no lovely and mingling attenuations of tint, like those of the rainbow, melting into each other, and dissolving and uniting the bright and contracted hues into "one arch of peace;" no, let the whole atmosphere be black, heaven shut out, and earth all darkness; let one predominating tinge of "ebon grain," swallow up every object and every colour, and while genius like his alone, sends a flash across the gloom, let it be like the brilliant and terrific lightning of a midnight storm, that makes darkness more awful, and light itself blasting and horrible.

Secondly, let the essence of the poem, be wholly *physical*—let the females be arrayed in all the meretricious and intoxicating sensuality of the serail, but they must not have one charm of mind, one attraction of virtue—"their large blue eyes, fair locks, and snowy hands," must be taken at a fair appraisement in lieu of one intellectual trait, one pure feeling, one virtuous energy—if ever they display resolution, let it be in the appropriate and feminine act of murder—while the milder heroines (like Medora) have only to conclude a life of prostitution and outlawry, by lying down to die (on the singular incident of their lovers going out on a piratical expedition) with a bouquet of flowers in their hands, (as it was formerly the custom to equip their less guilty brothers of the gibbet in England,*) and "die in their calling like clever Tom Clinch." Lastly, let it not be possible for the utmost malice of ingenuity to extort a moral from the work—let it be turned and sifted every way, but let the last and hopeless confession of the reader be, "Who can bring a clean thing out of an unclean?" Let the bravoes and the banditti, the harlots and the murdresses, die without remorse, as they have lived without feeling—let them begin in blasphemy and end in despair—let them not show "one compunctious visiting of nature"—let the heroes, after a course of incestuous adultery, die like Hugo, insulting the parent whom they have violated nature to injure—or let them, in their last hours, contend with the demon whose hideousness is annihilated and lost in the preternatural deformity and turpitude of his victim, who is able to give "bloody instructions" to his teacher, and even to school him out of his own book—and finally, let the reader rise from the page with the conviction that there is nothing new under the sun, since Job's wife has long ago extracted the quintessence of lord Byron's morality, and presented it in four short words: "Curse God and die." As lord Byron perhaps never read the book, he may be forgiven the apparent plagiary.

To imagine a poem so constructed is easy, but to imagine such a being as the author, requires a union of incredibilities that might startle the strongest imagination—we must then try to imagine a man who, while his country is called to a trial more awful than any the page of history exhibits, more interesting to a son of that country than all his darling Greece ever sustained, or had virtuous energy to sustain, stood apart, (with all his pretensions to keen sensibilities and lofty feelings,) and contented himself with sneering in cold-blooded apathy at the patriotism he did not feel, the wisdom he did not possess, and the valour he shrunk from imitating.

* Vide Swift.

Let us try to imagine a man, who, possessed of a genius sublime and unrivalled, delights only in its prostitution, as the ancient king of Lydia found even the beauties of his wife insufficient for his felicity, till he had exhibited her naked charms to his favourite.

Let us try to imagine a man, who, blessed, or (as he would make it out) cursed with all the lavish and glorious opulence of nature, genius and fortune, (powers that rarely unite in their favour,) tramples the pearls under his feet, and malignantly turns to rend the giver—who, bound to life by every tie that can render life lovely or precious—a companion fair and pure—a child—and that child a daughter too—can fling them off—ramble into remote regions with unintellectual harlots, and leave for the consolation of the deserted wife, a satire on a kitchen maid—a man who, enabled and qualified to enjoy, to embellish, and to dignify every scene of polished intercourse, and intellectual luxury, prostitutes his life away amid sceptics and sensualists—a man who, gifted with the finest and most keenly-pointed darts in satire's own quiver, has allowed vice to riot, and folly to revel in his sight unsmitten and unhurt, and reserved their swiftest and sharpest aim only to be directed against religion, patriotism, moral feeling, and conjugal fidelity.

A man who, affecting (and it is but affectation) a superiority that exempts him from chastisement or censure, pretending to be seated in the clouds, far above the lightning and thunder of public opinion, and laughing at their futile explosion, yet shows the wincing of a galled jade at the slightest touch of criticism, and retaliates with a fierceness of invective, a trepidation of jealousy, and an eagerness of mingled rage, fear, and acrimony, that has terrified even the Edinburgh reviewers into submission and praise. Lastly, a man who, "knew he but his happiness, of men the happiest, he," runs wild about the world, in a fit of misanthropy run mad, and cursed with a satiety of every blessing, tries to make the world believe he is miserable, and to persuade it to be as miserable as himself—if imagination sinks under such a task, the original is to be met with in lord Byron.

I have detained public attention too long with a subject which derives its importance only from its mischief. I have one question to propose to the readers and admirers of lord Byron (the power of his genius has made the terms synonymous)—what man ever rose wiser, better, or happier, from the perusal of his writings?—what female ever closed his pages strengthened in rectitude, confirmed in chastity, or softened to benevolence? Did man or woman ever carry away from his writings one principle of action, one rule of life, one thought, one image, that might suggest comfort in this life, or hope in the next? I have done with him—I leave his character to the painting of a bold, and one would almost think, a prophetic pen:

He is one whom—"brighter reason prompts to bolder crimes—when *heavenly talents* make *infernal hearts*—that insurmountable extreme of guilt."

A volume has lately appeared in London, containing "Private Correspondence of David Hume with several distinguished persons, between the years 1761 and 1776. Now first published from the originals." A great part of the book derives its sole attraction from the eminent name in the title page. Some parts are of a different character, and we extract one of them that will be read with interest, as confirming former accounts of Rousseau: the other, shows Hume's calm anticipation of death, in a very striking light.

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David Hume, to the Marchioness de Barbantane.

Lisle Street, Leicester-fields, Feb. 16, 1766.

You have sometimes, dear madam, been embarrassed between opposite opinions, with regard to the personal character of M. Rousseau: his enemies have sometimes made you doubt of his sincerity; and you have been pleased to ask my opinion on this head. After having lived so long with him, and seen him in a variety of lights, I am now better enabled to judge; and I declare to you, that I have never known a man more amiable and more virtuous than he appears to me: he is mild, gentle, modest, affectionate, disinterested; and, above all, endowed with a sensibility of heart in a supreme degree. Were I to seek for his faults, I should say, that they consisted in a little hasty impatience, which, as I am told, inclines him sometimes to say disobliging things to people that trouble him: he is also too delicate in the commerce of life: he is apt to entertain groundless suspicions of his best friends; and his lively imagination, working upon them, feigns chimeras, and pushes him to great extremes. I have seen no instances of this disposition; but I cannot otherwise account for the violent animosities which have arisen between him and several men of merit, with whom he was once intimately connected; and some who love him much have told me, that it is difficult to live much with him,

and preserve his friendship; but for my part, I think I could pass all my life in his company, without any danger of our quarrelling.

There is one circumstance that renders him very amiable, and may serve to abate the envy arising from his superior parts; which is, that he is endowed with a singular simplicity of manners, and is, indeed, a perfect child in the ordinary occurrences of life. This quality, joined to his great sensibility of heart, makes him be easily governed by those who live with him; and his maid, in particular, has an uncontrolled authority over him. Shall I give you an instance? He showed me the letter which he had received from the Corsicans, in which he is invited to come among them, to frame them a body of laws, and to be the Solon or Lycurgus of this new commonwealth. He told me, that he had once intended to comply with this invitation, but, on consulting mademoiselle Le Vasseur, he found she did not approve of the journey; upon which he laid aside all thoughts of it. His dog also had great influence with him; of which I shall give you an instance that may amuse you. Soon after our arrival, I prevailed on him to go to the playhouse, and see Garrick. Mrs. Garrick gave him her box, which is much concealed from the audience, but opposite to that of the king and queen; and their majesties were privately informed, that they might there expect to see M. Rousseau. When the hour came, he told me, that he had changed his resolution, and would not go: for, what shall I do with Sultan? That is the name of his dog. You must leave him behind, said I. But the first person, replied he, who opens the door, Sultan will run into the streets in search of me, and will be lost. You must then, said I, lock him up in your room, and put the key in your pocket. This was accordingly done: but as we went down stairs, the dog howled and made a noise; his master turned back, and said he had not resolution to leave him in that condition; but I caught him in my arms and told him, that Mrs. Garrick had dismissed another company in order to make room for him; that the king and queen were expecting to see him; and without a better reason than Sultan's impatience, it would be ridiculous to disappoint them. Partly by these reasons and partly by force, I engaged him to proceed. The king and queen looked more at him than at the players.

When I have proposed to him schemes for enriching him, he has told me, that he dreads the inconvenience of changing his manner of life; particularly, said he, I should be tempted, if I were richer, to take another servant, which, I know, is taking another master; and I should in that case have my will in nothing.

The public here has taken a great interest in M. Rousseau; and though we are now in the hottest time of our hottest factions, he is not forgot. Every circumstance, the most minute, that concerns him, is put in the newspapers. Unfortunately, one day, he lost his dog: this incident was in the papers next morning. Soon after, I recovered Sultan very surprisingly: this intelligence was communicated to the public immediately, as a piece of good news. Hundreds of persons have offered me their assistance to settle him; you would think that all the purses and all the houses of England were open to him. Did he understand the language, he would live very happily in this country. He is particularly pleased that nobody makes him speeches or compliments.

What has chiefly begot a doubt of his sincerity, are his great singularities, which some people take for affectation, and an art to gain celebrity: but his greatest singularity is the love of solitude, which, in a man so well calculated for the entertainment of company, and seemingly so sociable, appears very extraordinary. I can, however, answer for his sincerity in this particular. He would not stay in London above a fortnight. I settled him in a village about six miles from it: he is impatient to remove from thence, though the place and the house are both very agreeable to him; and, of a great variety of schemes which I propose to him, the most solitary, the most remote, the most savage place is always that which he prefers. In a few weeks he will certainly remove to Wales, and will board with a substantial farmer, who inhabits a lonely house amid forests and rivulets, and rocks and mountains. I have endeavoured to throw a hundred obstacles in the way, but nothing can divert him; his obstinacy is here an invincible proof of his sincerity. I must, however, confess, that I think he has an inclination to complain of his health, more than I imagine he has reason for: he is not insincere, but fanciful, in that particular.

David Hume, to the Countess de Boufflers.

Edinburgh, August 20, 1776.

Though I am certainly within a few weeks, dear madam, and perhaps within a few days of my own death, I could not for-

bear being struck with the death of the prince of Conti, so great a loss in every particular. My reflection carried me immediately to your situation in this melancholy incident. What a difference to you in your whole plan of life! Pray write me some particulars; but in such terms that you need not care, in case of decease, into whose hands your letter may fall.

My distemper is a diarrhœa, or disorder in my bowels, which has been gradually undermining me these two years, but within these six months has been visibly hastening me to my end. I see death approach gradually, without any anxiety or regret. I salute you with great affection and regard, for the last time, DAVID HUME.

MR. BROUGHAM.

In the list of extraordinary men, whose names occasionally occupy the page of history, may be placed the queen's counsellor, Mr. HENRY BROUGHAM, F. R. S. Ere he was sixteen years of age, he became known to the public by a series of papers in the Transactions of the Royal Society, written with such purity of style, and manifesting so much acute and diligent investigation, that he was immediately elected a member of that society, probably the most learned institution of Europe. He shortly after engaged in the study of the law, and was admitted to the Scotch bar. Here he displayed the immense powers of his eloquence with such force and judgment as to be still vividly recollected by every hearer. He was born 1780—F. R. S. 1796—published his volumes, entitled, "*The Colonial Policy of the European Powers*," in 1803, a work which was better received in Europe than any since "*Smith's Wealth of Nations.*" He was for years the principal author of the articles on moral and political subjects, in that celebrated work the "*Edinburgh Review.*" In 1806, he removed from Edinburgh to London, as a theatre more auspicious to the exercise of his superior talents; since which time, the gleaner of these facts can recollect his well known pamphlet, "*On the State of the Nation*," and his famous speech at the bar of the House of Commons, upon the "*Orders in Council.*" [*Charleston Times.*

DEATH OF COL. DANIEL BOONE.

From the Missouri Gazette.

Died, at Charrette village, in the state of Missouri, on the 26th September last, Col. DANIEL BOONE, the first settler of Kentucky, in the 90th year of his age. He was a native of Berks county, Pennsylvania; he left that state at 18 years old, and settled in North Carolina. He was one of the few men of our country whose enterprise led him to search into the wilderness for the best tracts of land for man to inhabit. As early as the year 1775, he removed with his family, and settled on the Kentucky river (with the loss of his eldest son, killed by the Indians,) at a plain now called Boonsborough, then an Indian country, where he remained until the year 1799. During this period of time, although most of his life had been spent in agricultural pursuits, and he had been frequently honoured by his countrymen, as a member of the Virginia legislature, and lived, at the close of the revolutionary war, in peace and plenty, yet, such was his delight in hunting, such his devotedness to it, that, in the year 1799, with a numerous train of followers, he removed from Kentucky, and settled on the Femme Osage river, which empties itself into the Missouri river, about 50 miles above its mouth, then a wilderness. The year after he discovered the Boon's Lick country, which now forms one of the best settlements of the state. In that year he also visited the head waters of the Grand Osage river, and spent the winter upon the head waters of the river Arkansas. At the age of 80, in company with one white man and a black man, whom he laid under strict injunction to return him to his family, dead or alive, he made a hunting trip to the head waters of the Great Osage, where he was successful in trapping of beaver and in taking other game.

Colonel Boone was a man of common stature, of great enterprise, strong intellect, amiable disposition, and inviolable integrity. He died universally regretted by all who knew him; and, such is the veneration for his name and character, that both houses of the General Assembly of the state of Missouri, upon information of his death being communicated, resolved to wear crape on the left arm for twenty days. as a token of regard and respect for his memory.

His wife died about seven years since, and both have been interred in the same grave, at Charrette village, in the county of Montgomery, and state of Missouri.

THE PROMPTER—NO. XI.

TO THE PROMPTER.

"*Sir—How should I work it? A. Z.*"

According to what is to be done. If you would do a *great deal* and do it *well*, write in large letters and paste up over the fireplace of your keeping room, the following maxims of the great De Witt, pensionary of Holland: "*Do one thing only at a time.*"

Are you a farmer? keep each kind of work, as much as possible, by itself. Don't run to half a dozen fields in a day, and work a little in each, unless necessity obliges you to do it. That work which may be done at any time, should be done

in winter, or when you have leisure. Get wood in winter, and cover it. If I see a man, *in the midst of harvest*, forced to go after a load of wood, I am sure *he has not worked it right*. Keep a complete set of instruments or tools. When I see a man running to one neighbour after a fan, and to another after a shovel, I set him down not only as poor, but as *doomed* to be poor. His neighbour's fan, or his shovel, *will do for the present*, but the occasions for them occur often, and how much time and labour are lost in going after them! If you would work to advantage, keep a complete set of utensils for your business; keep them *housed*, that they may last long, and in *their place*, that you may easily find them.

Do not run in debt to buy land. Land will not generally support a family, and pay taxes and interest on its value. If you have but a small piece of land, cultivate it well, make it produce as much as possible; and if you can get more than will maintain you from this little farm, lay out the surplus in buying more. If you cannot get more than a subsistence, it is time to think of lessening expenses, or selling out and buying new land. Depend on it, farmers who pay interest *do not work it right*.

Never do work by the halves. If you build a house or a barn, lay a plan that is within your power, and then *finish* what you begin. For want of the *last* half, the *first* is often totally lost.

Never buy rum on credit, nor until you have laid up money enough to pay your year's taxes. Then a little rum will taste good. The man who drinks rum before it is paid for, *does not work it right*. His appetite runs away with his purse and his judgment too.

It is 328 years since the first discovery of North America, by John Cabot; 236 since it was more perfectly explored by sir Walter Raleigh, when an attempt, which proved abortive, was made to establish a settlement in Virginia; 210 since the first permanent colony was planted in Virginia; 208 since the settlement of New Amsterdam, now New York; 200 years, 30th Dec. next, since the progenitors of New England landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts; 44 years since the commencement of our national existence, and 31 years since the adoption of our present system of national government.

Geological Society.—At the annual meeting of the American Geological Society, held at New Haven, September, 1820, the following gentlemen were elected officers for the ensuing year:

William Maclure, president; George Gibbs, Benjamin Silliman, Parker Cleaveland, Stephen Elliot, Robert Gilmore, jun. Samuel Brown, and Robert Hare, vice-presidents; Alfred S. Monson, recording secretary; J. W. Webster, F. C. Schaffer, and E. Hitchcock, corresponding secretaries; D. T. Porter, curator; A. M. Fisher, treasurer; B. Silliman, G. Gibbs, P. Cleaveland, and R. Hare, committee of nomination; George Gibbs, J. W. Webster, and James Pierce, committee of publication. [*Bost. Pal.*

Poetry.

The following was written several years ago, by a gentleman who now fills a professor's chair in Harvard University, and was originally published in the Boston Monthly Anthology.

CASTLE IN THE AIR.

I'll tell you friend, what sort of wife,
Whene'er I scan this scene of life,
Inspires my waking schemes;
And when I sleep, with form so light,
Dances before my ravished sight,
In sweet aerial dreams.

The rose its blushes need not lend,
Nor yet the lily with them blend,
To captivate my eyes:
Give me the cheek the heart obeys,
And sweetly mutable displays
Its feelings as they rise:

Features, where pensive more than gay,
Save when a rising smile doth play,
The sober thought you see;
Eyes, that all soft and tender seem,
And kind affections round them beam,
But most of all on me.

A form, though not of finest mould,
Where yet a something you behold,
Unconsciously doth please;
Manners, all graceful without art,
That to each look and word impart
A modesty and ease.

But still her air, her face, each charm,
Must speak a heart with feeling warm,
And mind inform the whole.
With mind the mantling cheek must glow,
Her voice, her beaming eye must show
An all inspiring soul.

Ah! could I such a being find,
And were my fate to hers but joined,
By Hymen's silken tie;
To her, myself my all, I'd give,
For her alone delighted live,
For her consent to die.

Whene'er by anxious gloom oppress'd,
On the soft pillow of her breast
My aching head I'd lay;

At her sweet smile each care should cease,
Her kiss infuse a balmy peace,
And drive my griefs away.

In turn, I'd soften all her care,
Each thought, each wish, each feeling share;
Should sickness e'er invade,
My voice should sooth the rising sigh,
My hand the cordial should supply;
I'd watch beside her bed.

Should gathering clouds our sky deform,
My arms should shield her from the storm,
And should its bolts be hurled—
My bosom to its bolts I'd bare,
In her defence, undaunted, dare
Defy the opposing world.

Together, should our prayers ascend,
Together, humbly would we bend,
To praise the Almighty name,
And when I saw her kindling eye,
Beam upward to her native sky,
My soul should catch the flame.

Thus nothing should our hearts divide,
But on, our lives serenely glide,
And all to love be given;
And when life's little scene is o'er,
We'll part, to meet and part no more,
But live and love in Heaven.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

The Queen's Trial.

Curse on the trial! tear the sheet!
For, true or false, the tale obscene
Of England's persecuted queen,
For wives and daughters is not meet.

If there were one redeeming trait
Of female modesty within her,
We might care something for her fate—
But how she holds her head elate!
A shameless, if not guilty, sinner.

Go seek me out some clean gazette,
Where I may ponder o'er the news,
And not in ev'ry page be met
By something viler than has yet
Been listened to, outside the stews.

PERCY.

Science and Literature.

From Silliman's American Journal of Science.

ON THE CRYSTALLIZATION OF SNOW,

By Professor Jacob Green, of Nassau Hall, N. J.

The crystallization of snow has for a long time excited the attention of the curious; few accurate observations however have been made upon it. Like the other phenomena of crystallization, this process is involved in much obscurity. Beccaria supposed that the regularity often noticed in these crystals was owing to electricity, and this will probably be found the true cause, not only in regard to snow but in every other instance of crystallization. We know that certain changes in the forms of substances are always connected with electrical effects, as for instance when vapour is formed or condensed, the bodies in contact with the vapours become electrical. Haüy has rendered it extremely probable that the integrant particles of matter always combine in the same body in the same manner, and that the combination is occasioned by cohesive attraction. May we not rationally suppose that what is called electrical polarity would induce them to cohere, not promiscuously, but in certain determinate forms. I need not here repeat the experiments which prove that the phenomena of electrical polarity are precisely analogous to those of magnetism, or that magnets will produce asteroidal figures with steel filings. With these hints I leave the theoretical part of the subject.

On the 16th of March, (1819) at 5 o'clock, P. M. I had the pleasure of observing the beautiful asteroidal figures sometimes assumed by flakes of snow. On examination each appeared to be composed of six thin spiculæ, diverging like rays from a centre. There was but little or no wind, and Farenheit's thermometer stood at 33°. The figures which I observed are exhibited in the plate at the end of the volume, and the numbers annexed to them correspond with those in the following description.

No. 1. This is a simple hexagonal star, the radii were of equal lengths and the angles of convergence being equal, each angle was of course 60°.

No. 2. This crystal differs from No. 1, only in the length and breadth of the spiculæ, they were shorter and broader.

No. 3. A simple star, except that the radii proceed from a central knob.

No. 4. The same as the last, differing from it only in having the radii bifurcated at the end.

No. 5. Differing from No. 4 in having three prongs at the extremity of the radii.

No. 6. The radii pinnated near the centre, giving the appearance of regular hexagonal figures one within the other, about half the distance between the pinnæ and the extremity of each radius there was a knob.

No. 7. Pinnated as No. 6, but without the knob, and having each radius trifurcated at the end.

When the snow commenced falling, the above figures were more distinct and durable, but they could occasionally be discovered for about an hour amid the amorphous flocculi. Just as the crystals No. 6 and 7 began to melt, their pinnated radii

were most brilliant, assuming somewhat the appearance of prismatic drops of dew. The figures were not all of the same dimensions; their principal difference was similar to that stated in Nos. 1 and 2. These figures were examined both with the single microscope and the naked eye; when not pinnated they were viewed with the most satisfaction without using a glass.

M. De Rattee, who has published an interesting article on this subject in the French Encyclopædia, states, that regular crystals of snow do not often occur, but that the flakes are commonly of an irregular and unequal figure. He also remarks it is worthy of observation that the different sorts of crystals are scarcely ever seen during the same fall of snow, the varieties appearing at different hours of the day or on different days. I am of opinion that they occur more frequently than is here supposed, and that different crystals are seen during the same fall of snow. We have besides the instance now noticed, the authority of Dr. John Netts, who has published a paper in the 49th vol. (1756) of the Philosophical Transactions, entitled "*an account of a method of observing the wonderful configurations of the smallest shining particles of snow.*" In one day and night (he observes) I found fifteen, twenty or more particles of snow differently formed, such as Olaus Magnus mentions, and in the year 1740, on the 11th, 12th, 13th, 21st, and 23d of January, and also on the 6th, 23d and 24th of February, I had an opportunity of delineating eighty different admirable figures of snow, and of observing their numberless varieties.

Accompanying this paper there are figures of ninety-one of these beautiful configurations; the size of them is much less than those observed by me on the 16th of March, and as they were examined with a double microscope, greater complexity was noticed. Most of Dr. Netts' figures are hexagonal, but some of the stars exhibited twelve radii.

In April, 1817, Dr. P. S. Townsend read before the Lyceum of Natural History of New York, a very interesting memoir on the crystallization of snow. In this paper the doctor has collected most of the facts known respecting this subject, and has referred to the writers who have considered it. His communication was published in the American Monthly Magazine for May, 1818.

* * * * * *

Some time since an account of stellar snow was forwarded to us by Dr. Jacob Porter of Plainfield; it was described as being "in the most regular and beautiful crystals, each crystal consisting of six rays diverging from a common centre, and each ray of a number of inferior rays proceeding from it in a pinnate form." The forms observed by Dr. Porter will be found among those delineated by Professor Green. [Ed.

Honey.—A quantity of honey, which had been kept for two years, was observed to undergo a kind of fermentation, after which grains of sugar separated from it in abundance. These being examined by M. Chevalier, were found to possess the characters of sugar of grapes. He supposes that the honey consisted originally of two kinds of sugar; one essentially liquid, and another capable of crystallizing. The fermentation having destroyed the power, the second was at liberty to assume the crystalline form.

Glass from Straw.—Wheat straw may be melted into a coloured glass with the blowpipe, without any addition. Barley straw melts into a glass of a topaz-yellow colour. [*Edinb. Philos. Jour.*

Canary Bird without Feathers.—It is generally supposed that birds cannot live without feathers, or that they linger out a miserable existence for a few days or weeks. This however does not appear to be true; for we find it stated in the Memoirs of the Society of Natural History of Wetterau, that a Mr. Schaefy, of Gottorf, reared a featherless Canary bird, which continued living and in good health for upwards of three years. [*Ibid.*

Nearest approach to the North Pole.—In the year 1806, Mr. Scoresby, when mate in his father's ship, the Resolution, of Whitby, succeeded, after great efforts, and by exposure to imminent hazard, in reaching the latitude 81° 30′, within about 600 miles of the pole. This took place in longitude 19° east. The nearest approximation to the South Pole, has been to the 72°, about 1170 miles from the pole. See Scoresby's *Accounts of the Arctic Regions*, vol. i. p. 312. [*Ibid.*

White Swallow.—Dr. Traill, of Liverpool, communicates to us the following fact: On the 22d August, 1819, I found in the nest of the Hirundo rustica, at Greenbank, near this town, a perfectly white swallow, fully fledged. The nest contained another young bird of the usual colour. The plumage of the former was pure snow-white, with a gloss like satin on the head,

neck, wing-coverts, and back. The animal was a perfect *albino*, having red eyes, pale reddish beak and legs. On replacing it in the nest, it speedily fled away; but was instantly attacked by fifty or sixty common swallows, that appeared to peck at and buffet it so cruelly, that it took refuge on a tree, from which it was not easily raised. On again essaying its wings, its persecutors assembled around it in great numbers, accompanying it until distance concealed it from our sight. A few days after it was shot near its former habitation, and both it and its brother swallow are now in my possession. [*Ibid.*

Humboldt's Journey into India.—We are informed that the celebrated traveller Humboldt, is busily employed in preparing for the press an extensive work on the geology of America, and that he intends leaving France in autumn for Madras, taking the route through Greece and Persia. He will be accompanied by several fellow travellers; M. Valencienne, a young zoologist; Smith, his botanical assistant, and others. [*Ibid.*

Effect of Hot Water in reviving Flowers.—In Thompson's Annals of Philosophy, it is said, that if flowers which have been twenty-four hours out of water and are decayed, are plunged into hot water, that, as the water gradually cools, they become again quite fresh. This fact, while many discredit it, has been long familiar to those who live in the vicinity of hot springs, and who have remarked that decayed flowers plunged into the waters of the spring become again fresh and beautiful. [*Ibid.*

Platinum is now prepared at Paris, in leaves as thin as those of leaf gold.

Mr. Cooper has ascertained, that if hydrogen gas be breathed for a few moments, it has the curious effect of changing the voice. This effect is observed on the person speaking immediately after leaving the vessel of hydrogen, but it soon goes off. No instance has yet occurred in which this effect on the voice has not been produced by the hydrogen.

M. Kœnig, a painter of Berne, in Switzerland, has invented a method of producing transparent pictures so as to exhibit the effect of the sun, moon and fire in the greatest perfection. His landscapes of Switzerland are said to be much more perfect representations of the sublime scenery of the Alpine regions than any thing hitherto produced. [*Silliman's Journ.*

Oil has been extracted in Italy from the grape seed. It affords a light equal to that of nut oil: the smoke and odour are scarcely perceptible. [*Ibid.*

Preparations are making in Malta to introduce the system of mutual instruction on the coast of Africa, through the medium of the Arabic. A small book has been printed in that language explanatory of the system. [*Ibid.*

The Greeks of the Ionian islands are about to witness the realization of their fondest hopes—the establishment of a university in Corfu. Lord Guilford has received from the English government the necessary instructions for carrying the project into execution. The count Capo D'Istria, a native of Corfu, has contributed by various donations to the endowment of this university. He has furnished M. Politi, professor of chemistry in the new university, with the means of establishing a complete chemical laboratory. [*Ibid.*

A society of artists and men of letters in Paris, have engaged to publish a collection of lithographical portraits of celebrated men and women of that country, with a short biographical memoir of each person, and a fac simile of their writing as far as it can be obtained. Two numbers, containing each four portraits with their notices, &c. are published monthly at seven francs per number. [*Ibid.*

The following method of producing pictures of metallic vegetation, by M. Goldsmith, has been read before the French Institute. Place a few grains of iron and copper filings on a glass plate at a certain distance from each other. Add to each parcel a few drops of nitrate of silver; the silver is soon precipitated in a metallic state, while the copper and the iron are oxidated and coloured. Then with a small stick arrange the ramifications of the silver, while the flame of a taper placed under the glass, promotes the evaporation of the fluid, facilitates the reaction of the materials, blackens the plate, and thus forms the ground of the picture. [*Ann. de Chimie.*

Thenard has succeeded in causing pure water to absorb oxygen to the enormous extent of six hundred and fifty times its volume. The process is complicated. The principal agents he employs are barytes, and muriatic and sulphuric acid. The oxygenated water has a taste slightly astringent and bitter. It whitens the epidermis and occasions very pungent sensations. A

great number of the metallic oxids act upon it with such energy as to produce explosions. [*Ibid.*

B. Braconnot has succeeded in converting by means of sulphuric acid, various ligneous substances, such as sawdust, linen rags, hempen tow, &c. into gum and sugar. The gum perfectly resembles that of the *mimosa nilotica*. The sugar is much like that which is extracted from grapes. [*Ibid.*

The Cashmere goat has been introduced into the province of Rousillon in France with encouraging success. One hundred and twenty kids have been produced, and already bear the valuable down which characterizes that species. [*Ibid.*

The foundation of a new school for the fine arts has been laid in Paris, in the place where the museum of French monuments has been kept. [*Ibid.*

The canal of Alexandria, in Egypt is prosecuted with vigour. Mines of lead and iron have been lately discoverd in upper Egypt. [*Ibid.*

The population of Sweden has increased in three years, viz. 1816, 17, and 18, by seventy-two thousand three hundred and forty-six individuals. In the capital there has been a slight diminution, owing to the tendency of rich proprietors to engage more extensively in iron works and agricultural employments. The whole population in 1818, was two millions five hundred and forty-three thousand four hundred and twelve. [*Ibid.*

FROM THE NATIONAL GAZETTE.

The London Courier of October 2d, announces the publication of the 46th number of the Quarterly Review, on the following day.

The 67th number of the Edinburgh Review is advertised in the same paper. In the list of its contents, we observe an article on the "Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon," and one headed FRANCE. It contains nothing with regard to the queen's case. In the article on "the Sketch Book," the following opinion is given of the North American Review:

"The North American Review, published at Boston, appears to us to be by far the best and most promising production of the press of that country, that has ever come to our hands. It is written with great learning, spirit and ability, on a great variety of subjects; and abounds with profound and original discussions on the most interesting topics. The work is of a powerful and masculine character, and is decidedly superior to any thing of that kind that existed in Europe twenty years ago."

Number 19, of the Quarterly Journal of Science, is also advertised in the late London papers.

The "Memoirs of Bergami," published in Paris, and republished in London as genuine, are declared by the ministerial journals of the former capital, to be a mere *mystification.*

Orator Hunt has published "Memoirs of Himself, written by himself, in his majesty's gaol at Ilchester."

The celebrated Jeremy Bentham has published a new work called, "Swear not At All, containing an exposition of the needlessness and mischievousness and antichristianity of the ceremony of an oath."

At the last distribution of degrees in the University of Edinburgh, one hundred and twenty medical practitioners received the degree of Doctor in Medicine.

Lectures on the Geography of the United States.—Mr. Darby will soon read a course of about forty lectures, on the geography of the United States. A sketch of his plan, and the contents of the lectures, may be seen in our second volume, at page 229. There have since been some alterations in his arrangements. He has procured the use of the room of the Medical Society in the Masonic Hall.

TERMS.—Tickets for the course, $5; liberal allowance for family tickets. Ticket for single lecture, 50 cents.

The concluding number of vol. ii. of Silliman's American Journal of Science and the Arts, has been received by the Philadelphia agents, Messrs. Littell and Henry.

The Subscriber who wishes to *post* his wife for leaving his bed and board, is informed that we never meddle with such matters, and of course cannot print his notice.

☞ The publishers have discovered, that duplicates of No. 15, of this volume, were sent to many of their distant subscribers, instead of No. 16. Such as have received them in this manner, will please return them by mail, and No. 16 shall be forwarded.

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THE AMERICAN CHARACTER.

We are most confident that a want of attachment to our country is not among our faults, and yet we often have a sensation of dislike, amounting sometimes to disgust, at the incessant defence of the American character. After some little examination, we believe we have discovered, that this feeling arises from a confidence, that there is something in the nation that will always make it respected, without any vindication on our part. Somebody, probably Mr. Jefferson, said, that every year of our existence would serve instead of volumes of refutation of foreign aspersions. The slanders against our national character, have almost always proceeded from persons who were beneath our contempt, and even when they were echoed from the reveiws, were unworthy of the general indignation they excited. Why should the false opinions that may for a little while be entertained of us by some foreigners, be able so much to disturb us? They cannot in the slightest degree affect our prosperity or happiness. If they were believed, they would for a little while diminish the effect of the example of a government instituted solely for the good of the people. But the truth cannot be long concealed, and we shall soon be known as we are, without any trouble on our part.

"What will Mrs. Grundy say?" is the constant exclamation of some of our *ultra-patriots.* If any abuse in our governments or any striking instance of depravity is pointed out, there is an immediate reference to the opinions that foreigners will have of it, and it is often said that it is better to hush up any disgraceful matter as quietly as we can. We find in private life, no men deserving respect, who are not confident of obtaining it by their deserts, without any elaborate defence or anxious puffing; and there is, so far as we can see, no reason why, in pursuance of the same principles, we should not leave our national character to support itself. Our great champion, Mr. Walsh, has done enough for our cause, but every youngster that can write must join in the defence against our literary enemies.

The immediate occasion of these remarks is furnished by the approaching publication of the *Philadelphia Medical Journal.* In the prospectus of the work it was stated, that it would enter in a considerable degree into its plan to vindicate the American character from foreign aggression. The motto chosen for it, is an extract from the 65th No. of the Edinburgh Reveiw: "In the four quarters of the globe, who reads an American book? or goes to an American play? or looks at an American picture or statue? what does the world yet owe to American Physicians or Surgeons?"

We cannot but think it giving undue importance to this silly effusion, to take so much notice of it in a work dignified by the names of Physick, Chapman, Patterson and the other eminent men who have contributed to the first number.

REVOLUTION AT HAYTI.

We are as yet unable to present to our readers any distinct account of the revolution at Hayti. It appears that some of the emperor's troops had revolted, and a proclamation of president Boyer calls upon the remainder of the nation to follow their example. It was said that king Henry had been decapitated, or had committed suicide; but it is not certain that he is not alive.

In the mean time, we will take advantage of this uncertainty, to speculate a little upon futurity. Should it be true that Henry is dead, Boyer will probably succeed in consolidating the whole population into one nation. This would at once work an essential change in their politics. Hitherto their strength has been wasted in continual contests among themselves, that have retarded their increase of wealth and left them neither leisure nor inclination to look abroad. When they find themselves strong enough to commence hostilities with a probable chance of success, it is likely that

they will endeavour to obtain possession of the whole island; but it is extremely difficult to drive a people from their homes, and if the Spaniards were not surrounded by slaves, we should consider it impracticable to remove them; but when the standard of revolt is raised by a numerous and well disciplined army, it is difficult to believe that it will not be successful. Possession of the whole island would render them impregnable to any force that could be brought against them. This is, however, nearly true of their present situation, so that we may proceed in our disquisitions without settling this matter. The most important questions to be decided are these: Will the southern states and the West India islands be affected by the anticipated change? And what will be the indirect effect produced by the full development of the nation, upon the blacks throughout America?

In determining the first question, a difficulty arises in our incapability of estimating the force of public opinion. If the government were so constituted as to receive a strong impression from it, it would seem probable that there would be a disposition to interfere actively in the concerns of the neighbouring islands, and to declare openly in favour of any organized insurrection that might break out. If the popular voice have no influence, it will depend too much upon the character of individuals to permit us to make any general calculations. We might, it is true, be able to estimate president Boyer, but any deductions from a single life would be too temporary and too liable to be falsified by accident, to deserve much of our confidence. If the ruler were independent of public opinion, he would be the more accessible to considerations of the advantage of preserving friendship with the European powers to whom the islands belong; but nothing can remove from the mass of the people the recollection of their former degradation, or take away their indignant sympathy with their countrymen who are held in bondage by the whites. Should the revolt against the king be general, it will give a great increase of strength to popular opinion, which will also be fortified by the progress of knowledge that is said to be very rapid among them, and we have little doubt will be felt very sensibly in the government. We shall probably be right in considering that the foreign policy will be in accordance with public feeling, and will be directed with great perseverance to the liberation of the slaves in the other islands. Should there be any serious danger of an invasion of Hayti, this course will derive additional attractions for the nation. We do not know enough of the state of the islands to give an opinion with much confidence, but it appears that as the slave population in every island is much more numerous than the whites, a successful insurrection without any foreign assistance would by no means be improbable. Concert is almost all that is necessary; for were a *general* alarm to be created, it would prevent the application of an overwhelming force at any one point, and would serve to assure victory to the blacks. Now the neighbourhood of Hayti will very much tend to produce this concert. The attention of the slaves will be directed that way, and it would not be very difficult to have it generally known throughout an island, at what time an attempt should be made. Probably no power but Great Britain will be able to afford much assistance to the colonists, and her interference would not be active in any but her own possessions. The United States would probably engage no farther, than to do what could be done to carry off the unhappy white inhabitants. Upon the whole it seems to us most likely, that the present population of the West India islands is made up of such discordant materials, that it cannot long continue in the face of so powerful a community as Hayti is likely to become. There may be no immediate changes, and the result anticipated may be indefinitely postponed, but at present we see little reason for doubting that it will ultimately take place. The citizens of the southern states are much stronger in themselves, and are bordered by an overwhelming force on the north, so that a general insurrection under present circumstances would be impracticable. What effect may be produced by increasing the slaves, by extending the territory inhabited by them, cannot now be ascertained; but it appears likely that it will tend to make insurrection more probable, while it would in a great degree procrastinate the assistance which would always be at hand in neighbouring states. It is difficult to conceive how our southern politicians can be so blind to the advantage of surrounding themselves with free states, independent of all moral considerations. Is it possible that the present advantage of increasing the value of slaves, can be the cause of so great a unanimity in popular opinion, and can outweigh all considerations of public good?

The second question, upon the indirect ef-

fect to be produced upon the blacks throughout America by the development of talent and power in Hayti, can be answered with greater certainty. We all know how great obstacles are thrown against the moral and mental improvement even of the free blacks by the degradation which their colour casts upon them. We have from our earliest infancy been accustomed to regard them as being necessarily inferior to us, *because* they are *negroes*, and this appellation applies, in common use, to all who have, what would be called a *taint* of African blood, how slight soever. That the origin of this prejudice may be found in their servile situation and the vice and ignorance that necessarily accompanies it, will not be denied. Were these entirely removed, the associated contempt of their colour would not long continue. The success of their attempt to maintain an independent national existence, must have changed the opinions of many who believed the blacks to be an order of beings naturally and essentially far inferior to the whites. The increase of commercial intercourse will bring us very frequently in contact with intelligent natives of the island, and as civilization advances among them, we shall come by degrees to treat them with respect from other reasons than a wish for commercial advantages. This will affect our opinions of our own free black population, and will remove one great obstacle to their improvement; a consciousness of degradation. This elevation in the moral condition of the free blacks, will give additional force to the advocates of the abolition of slavery in the southern states, and we feel a confident hope that the various causes that will concur to make this measure more and more desirable, will gradually work our perfect deliverance from the evil and guilt of slavery.

The full examination of this subject by an able hand would be highly interesting and instructive; but we have no pretensions to so much of the time of our readers as would be necessary for this purpose, and will dismiss the question by asking whether in every point of view it would not be advisable for our southern friends to begin to fit their slaves for a gradual liberation, by affording them better instruction. That no policy founded on error is sure, is a general rule to which it would require the clearest arguments to induce us to allow an exception.

Auctions.—We observe that a petition to Congress to impose a duty upon sales at auction, is offered for signatures in Philadelphia. We will take advantage of this notice to say a few words upon the monopoly of the sales. It is asserted, upon authority that commands our belief, that an auctioneer who was appointed some years ago, received for the use of his commission about $5000 a year, no part of which was gained by his capital or industry. Indeed it was said to be a specific article of the agreement, that he should in nowise interfere in the business. Does not this prove that the commission paid for selling, is much higher than it would be if a free competition were allowed? And if this be true, what shelters this case from the unanswerable objections to all other monopolies?

Insolvent Debtors.—Before an insolvent debtor can obtain his discharge, he must swear that he has given up all his property. This oath must always be understood with some reservation. For instance, it is not expected that a man should give up the clothes necessary to cover him. A watch, or any other valuable article of personal furniture, could not however be fairly held, unless custom should affix a meaning to the oath, very different from its literal and original interpretation.

In a late western paper an account is given of the conviction of a young man hardly of age, of *perjury*, for taking the oath when he was in possession of *two dollars;* although at the same time, his clothes were hardly sufficient to protect him from the weather.

The object of the present notice is, to offer for consideration a question to which the writer has yet given but little attention: Whether the laws that allow of a resort to the *person* of the debtor might not with great advantage be abolished? Are they not useless to the creditor as well as vexatious and demoralizing to the debtor?

Emigration to the Cape of Good Hope. The British settlements at various points of the Cape of Good Hope, are now so considerable, that they will probably be permanent; and as, with the advantages of knowledge and industrious habits, population will not soon be checked by a difficulty in procuring the means of subsistence, it will advance with great rapidity unless retarded by circumstances which do not enter into our present views.

What a mother of nations is Great Britain! North America, India, New Holland,

and Africa, will soon contain descendants from her, many times more numerous than the parent stock. The blessings of liberty and refinement will be extended to vast continents from "a little island in the North Sea."

Record.

THE MESSAGE

Of the President of the United States, to both Houses, at the opening of the Second Session of the Sixteenth Congress.

Fellow Citizens of the Senate,
and of the House of Representatives:

In communicating to you a just view of public affairs, at the commencement of your present labours, I do it with great satisfaction; because, taking all circumstances into consideration which claim attention, I see much cause to rejoice in the felicity of our situation. In making this remark, I do not wish to be understood to imply that an unvaried prosperity is to be seen in every interest of this great community. In the progress of a nation inhabiting a territory of such vast extent and great variety of climate, every portion of which is engaged in foreign commerce, and liable to be affected, in some degree, by the changes which occur in the condition and regulations of foreign countries, it would be strange if the produce of our soil and the industry and enterprise of our fellow citizens received at all times, and in every quarter, an uniform and equal encouragement. This would be more than we have a right to expect, under circumstances the most favourable.—Pressures on certain interests, it is admitted, have been felt; but allowing to these their greatest extent, they detract but little from the force of the remark already made. In forming a just estimate of our present situation, it is proper to look at the whole—in the outline, as well as in the detail. A free, virtuous, and enlightened people know well the great principles and causes on which their happiness depends; and even those who suffer most, occasionally, in their transitory concerns, find great relief under their sufferings, from the blessings which they otherwise enjoy, and in the consoling and animating hope which they administer. From whence do these pressures come? Not from a government which is founded by, administered for, and supported by, the people. We trace them to the peculiar character of the epoch in which we live, and to the extraordinary occurrences which have signalized it. The convulsions with which several of the powers of Europe have been shaken, and the long and destructive wars in which all were engaged, with their sudden transition to a state of peace, presenting, in the first instance, unusual encouragement to our commerce, and withdrawing it in the second, even within its wonted limit, could not fail to be sensibly felt here. The station too, which we had to support through this long conflict, compelled, as we were, finally to become a party to it with a principal power, and to make great exertions, suffer heavy losses, and to contract considerable debts, disturbing the ordinary course of affairs, by augmenting to a vast amount, the circulating medium, and thereby elevating, at one time, the price of every article above a just standard, and depressing it at another below it, had likewise its due effect.

It is manifest, that the pressures of which we complain have proceeded, in a great measure, from these causes. When, then we take into view the prosperous and happy condition of our country, in all the great circumstances which constitute the felicity of a nation—every individual in the full enjoyment of all his rights, the union blessed with plenty, and rapidly rising to greatness, under a national government, which operates with complete effect in every part, without being felt in any, except by the ample protection which it affords, and under state governments which perform their equal share, according to a wise distribution of power between them, in promoting the public happiness—it is impossible to behold so gratifying, so glorious a spectacle, without being penetrated with the most profound and grateful acknowledgments to the Supreme Author of all good for such manifold and inestimable blessings. Deeply impressed with these sentiments, I cannot regard the pressures to which I have adverted otherwise than in the light of mild and instructive admonitions! warning us of dangers to be shunned in future; teaching us lessons of economy, corresponding with the simplicity and purity of our institutions, and best adapted to their support; evincing the connexion and dependence which the various parts of our happy union have on each other, thereby augmenting daily our social incorporation, and adding by its strong ties, new strength and vigour to the political; opening a wider range, and with new encouragement to the industry and enterprise of our fellow citizens at home and abroad; and more especially by the multiplied proofs which it has accumulated of the great perfection of our most excellent system of government, the powerful instrument, in the hands of an all-merciful Creator, in securing to us these blessings.

Happy as our situation is, it does not exempt us from solicitude and care for the future. On the contrary, as the blessings which we enjoy are great, proportionably great should be our vigilance, zeal and activity to preserve them. Foreign wars may again expose us to new wrongs, which would impose on us new duties, for which we ought to be prepared. The state of Europe is unsettled, and how long peace may be preserved, is altogether uncertain; in addition to which, we have interests of our own to adjust, which will require particular attention. A correct view of our relations with each power, will enable you to form a just idea of existing difficulties, and of the measures of precaution best adapted to them.

Respecting our relations with Spain, nothing explicit can now be communicated. On the adjournment of Congress, in May last, the minister plenipotentiary of the United States at Madrid, was instructed to inform the government of Spain, that if his Catholic Majesty should then ratify the treaty, this government would accept the ratification, so far as to submit to the decision of the Senate the question whether such ratification should be received in exchange for

that of the United States, heretofore given. By letters from the minister of the United States to the secretary of state, it appears, that a communication, in conformity with his instructions, had been made to the government of Spain, and that the Cortes had the subject under consideration. The result of the deliberations of that body, which is daily expected, will be made known to Congress as soon as it is received. The friendly sentiment which was expressed on the part of the United States, in the message of the 9th of May last, is still entertained for Spain. Among the causes of regret, however, which are inseparable from the delay attending this transaction, it is proper to state, that satisfactory information has been received that measures have been recently adopted by designing persons, to convert certain parts of the province of East Florida into depots for the reception of foreign goods, from whence to smuggle them into the United States. By opening a port within the limits of Florida, immediately on our boundary, where there was no settlement, the object could not be misunderstood. An early accommodation of differences will, it is hoped, prevent all such fraudulent and pernicious practices, and place the relations of the two countries on a very amicable and permanent basis.

The commercial relations between the United States and the British colonies in the West Indies, and on this continent, have undergone no change; the British government still preferring to leave that commerce under the restriction heretofore imposed on it, on each side. It is satisfactory to recollect, that the restraints resorted to by the United States were defensive only, intended to prevent a monopoly under British regulations, in favour of Great Britain; as it likewise is to know that the experiment is advancing in a spirit of amity between the parties.

The question depending between the United States and Great Britain, respecting the construction of the first article of the treaty of Ghent, has been referred, by both governments, to the decision of the emperor of Russia, who has accepted the umpirage.

An attempt has been made with the government of France, to regulate by treaty the commerce between the two countries, on the principles of reciprocity and equality. By the last communication, from the minister plenipotentiary of the United States at Paris, to whom full power had been given, we learn that the negotiation had been commenced there, but serious difficulties having occurred, the French government had resolved to transfer it to the United States, for which purpose the minister plenipotentiary of France had been ordered to repair to this city, and whose arrival might soon be expected. It is hoped that this important interest may be arranged on just conditions, and in a manner equally satisfactory to both parties. It is submitted to Congress to decide, until such arrangement is made, how far it may be proper, on the principle of the act of the last session, which augmented the tonnage duty on French vessels to adopt other measures for carrying more completely into effect the policy of that act.

The act referred to which imposed new tonnage on French vessels, having been in force from and after the 1st day of July, it has happened that several vessels of that nation which had been despatched from France before its existence was known, have entered the ports of the United States and been subject to its operation, without that previous notice which the general spirit of our laws gives to individuals in similar cases. The object of that law having been merely to countervail the inequalities which existed to the disadvantage of the United States, in their commercial intercourse with France, it is submitted also to the consideration of Congress, whether, in the spirit of amity and conciliation, which it is no less the inclination than the policy of the United States to preserve in their intercourse with other powers, it may not be proper to extend relief to the individuals interested in those cases, by exempting from the operation of the law all those vessels which have entered our ports without having had the means of previously knowing the existence of the additional duty.

The contest between Spain and the colonies, according to the most authentic information, is maintained by the latter, with improved success. The unfortunate divisions which were known to exist some time since at Buenos Ayres, it is understood still prevail. In no part of South America has Spain made any impression on the colonies, while in many parts, and particularly in Venezuela and New Grenada, the colonies have gained strength and acquired reputation, both for the management of the war, in which they have been successful, and for the order of the internal administration. The late change in the government of Spain, by the re-establishment of the constitution of 1812, is an event which promises to be favourable to the revolution. Under the authority of the Cortes, the Congress of Angostura was invited to open a negotiation for the settlement of differences between the parties, to which it was replied, that they would willingly open the negotiation, provided the acknowledgment of their independence was made its basis, but not otherwise. Of further proceedings between them we are uninformed. No facts are known to this government, to warrant the belief, that any of the powers of Europe will take part in the contest; whence it may be inferred, considering all circumstances, which must have weight in producing the result, that an adjustment will finally take place, on the basis proposed by the colonies. To promote that result, by friendly counsels, with other powers, including Spain herself, has been the uniform policy of this government.

In looking to the internal concerns of our country, you will, I am persuaded, derive much satisfaction from a view of the several objects to which, in the discharge of your official duties, your attention will be drawn. Among these, none holds a more important place than the public revenue, from the direct operation of the power, by which it is raised, on the people, and by its influence in giving effect to every other power of the government. The revenue depends on the resources of the country, and the facility by which the amount required is raised, is a strong proof of the extent of the resources, and of the efficiency of the government. A few prominent facts will place this great interest in a just light before you. On the 30th of Septem-

ber, 1815, the funded and floating debt of the United States was estimated at one hundred and nineteen millions six hundred and thirty-five thousand five hundred and fifty-eight dollars. If to this sum be added the amount of five per cent. stock subscribed to the Bank of the United States, the amount of Mississippi stock, and of the stock which was issued subsequently to that date, the balances ascertained to be due to certain states, for military services, and to individuals, for supplies furnished, and services rendered, during the late war, the public debt may be estimated as amounting, at that date, and as afterwards liquidated, to one hundred and fifty-eight millions seven hundred and thirteen thousand forty-nine dollars. On the 30th of September, 1820, it amounted to ninety-one millions nine hundred and ninety-three thousand eight hundred and eighty-three dollars, having been reduced in that interval, by payments, sixty-six millions eight hundred and seventy-nine thousand one hundred and sixty-five dollars. During this term, the expenses of the government of the United States were likewise defrayed, in every branch of the civil, military, and naval establishments; the public edifices in this city have been rebuilt, with considerable additions; extensive fortifications have been commenced, and are in a train of execution; permanent arsenals and magazines have been erected in various parts of the union; our navy has been considerably augmented, and the ordnance, munitions of war, and stores, of the army and navy, which were much exhausted during the war, have been replenished.

By the discharge of so large a proportion of the public debt, and the execution of such extensive and important operations, in so short a time, a just estimate may be formed of the great extent of our national resources. The demonstration is the more complete and gratifying, when it is recollected that the direct tax and excise were repealed soon after the termination of the late war, and that the revenue applied to these purposes has been derived almost wholly from other sources.

The receipts into the treasury from every source, to the 30th of September last, have amounted to sixteen millions seven hundred and ninety-four thousand one hundred and seven dollars and sixty-six cents, whilst the public expenditures, to the same period, amounted to sixteen millions eight hundred and seventy-one thousand five hundred and thirty-four dollars and seventy-two cents: leaving in the treasury, on that day, a sum estimated at one million nine hundred and fifty thousand dollars. For the probable receipts of the following year, I refer you to the statement which will be transmitted from the treasury.

The sum of three millions of dollars, authorized to be raised by loan, by an act of the last session of Congress, has been obtained upon terms advantageous to the government, indicating not only an increased confidence in the faith of the nation, but the existence of a large amount of capital seeking that mode of investment, at a rate of interest not exceeding five per centum per annum.

It is proper to add, that there is now due to the treasury, for the sale of public lands, twenty-two millions nine hundred and ninety-six thousand five hundred and forty-five dollars. In bringing this subject to view, I consider it my duty to submit to Congress, whether it may not be advisable to extend to the purchasers of these lands, in consideration of the unfavourable change which has occurred since the sales, a reasonable indulgence. It is known that the purchases were made when the price of every article had risen to its greatest height and that the instalments are becoming due at a period of great depression. It is presumed that some plan may be devised, by the wisdom of Congress, compatible with the public interest, which would afford great relief to these purchasers.

Considerable progress has been made, during the present season, in examining the coast and the various bays, and other inlets; in the collection of materials, and in the construction of fortifications for the defence of the union, at several of the positions at which it has been decided to erect such works. At Mobile Point and Dauphin island, and at the Rigolets, leading to Lake Ponchartrain, materials, to a considerable amount, have been collected, and all the necessary preparations made for the commencement of the works. At Old Point Comfort, at the mouth of James river, and at the Rip-Rap, on the opposite shore, in the Chesapeake bay, materials to a vast amount have been collected; and at the Old Point some progress has been made in the construction of the fortification, which is on a very extensive scale. The work at Fort Washington on this river, will be completed early in the next spring; and that on the Pea Patch, in the Delaware, in the course of the next season. Fort Diamond, at the Narrows, in the harbour of New York, will be finished this year.

The works at Boston, New York, Baltimore, Norfolk, Charleston, and Niagara, have been in part repaired; and the coast of North Carolina, extending south to Cape Fear, has been examined, as have likewise other parts of the coast eastward of Boston. Great exertions have been made to push forward these works with the utmost despatch possible; but when their extent is considered, with the important purposes for which they are intended, the defence of the whole coast, and, in consequence, of the whole interior, and that they are to last for ages, it will be manifest that a well digested plan, founded on military principles, connecting the whole together, combining security with economy, could not be prepared without repeated examinations of the most exposed and difficult parts, and that it would also take considerable time to collect the materials at the several points where they would be required.

From all the light that has been shed on this subject, I am satisfied that every favourable anticipation which has been formed of this great undertaking will be verified, and that, when completed, it will afford very great, if not complete, protection to our Atlantic frontier, in the event of another war—a protection sufficient to counterbalance, in a single campaign, with an enemy powerful at sea, the expense of all these works, without taking into the estimate the saving of the lives of so many of our citizens, the protection of our towns and other property, or the tendency of such works to prevent war.

Our military positions have been maintained at

Belle Point, on the Arkansas, at Council Bluff, on the Missouri, at St. Peter's, on the Mississippi, and at Green Bay, on the Upper Lakes. Commodious barracks have already been erected at most of these posts, with such works as were necessary for their defence. Progress has also been made in opening communications between them, and in raising supplies at each, for the support of the troops by their own labour—particularly those most remote.

With the Indians peace has been preserved, and a progress made in carrying into effect the act of Congress, making an appropriation for their civilization, with the prospect of favourable results. As connected equally with both these objects, our trade with those tribes is thought to merit the attention of Congress. In their original state, game is their sustenance, and war their occupation; and, if they find no employment from civilized powers, they destroy each other. Left to themselves, their extirpation is inevitable. By a judicious regulation of our trade with them, we supply their wants, administer to their comforts, and gradually, as the game retires, draw them to us.

By maintaining posts far in the interior, we acquire a more thorough and direct control over them; without which it is confidently believed that a complete change in their manners can never be accomplished. By such posts, aided by a proper regulation of our trade with them, and a judicious civil administration over them, to be provided for by law, we shall, it is presumed, be enabled not only to protect our own settlements from their savage incursions, and preserve peace among the several tribes, but accomplish also the great purpose of their civilization.

Considerable progress has also been made in the construction of ships of war, some of which have been launched in the course of the present year.

Our peace with the powers on the coast of Barbary has been preserved, but we owe it altogether to the presence of our squadron in the Mediterranean. It has been found equally necessary to employ some of our vessels, for the protection of our commerce in the Indian sea, the Pacific, and along the Atlantic coast. The interests which we have depending in those quarters, which have been much improved of late, are of great extent, and of high importance to the nation, as well as to the parties concerned, and will undoubtedly suffer, if such protection was not extended to them. In execution of the law of the last session, for the suppression of the slave trade, some of our public ships have also been employed on the coast of Africa, where several captures have already been made of vessels engaged in that disgraceful traffic.

JAMES MONROE.

Washington, Nov. 14, 1820.

We avail ourselves of the following abstract, by the Boston Evening Gazette, of governor Clinton's speech at the present session of the New York legislature.

"Governor Clinton met the two houses in convention, and delivered a speech which occupies about three columns of a newspaper. He recommends an amendment to the constitution of the United States, which should abrogate the choice of electors by the state legislatures, and establish an uniform mode of filling that office. The legislature will be called upon also to elect a senator of the United States. He intimates the necessity of retrenchment in the state expenditures, and the diminution of costly establishments and unnecessary offices. He speaks of the dangers resulting to the state governments, from the officers of the general government attempting, as an organized and disciplined corps, to interfere in the state elections. He thinks there should be a convention for amending the constitution so as to vary the organization of the political power of the state, and prevent for the future the commotions which agitate the public mind.

"The governor then expatiates on the progress of the internal improvement. He says, 'upwards of 51 miles of the canal between the Genesee river and Montezuma, including 16 locks, are under contract, and the whole distance of sixty miles and a quarter, with 2 additional locks, can be easily completed by the first day of September next; 30 miles of the section east from Utica are also under contract, including 12 locks, and will be completed the next season. In the progress of these operations, rocks have been excavated at the Little Falls in seventy or eighty days, which it was originally supposed would have taken two years. The improvements in the Hudson river, and by canals, to the distance of 28 miles south from Fort Edward, will be effected the next season; and it is hoped that the remaining ten miles to Waterford, which will finish the whole operation of the inland navigation of the north, can also be accomplished within that period. There will then remain about 100 miles on the western, and about 68 on the eastern section, in order to realize our whole system of internal navigation.'

"He recommends the application of all the resources of the state to the completion of this great work.

"He suggests the propriety of establishing a Board of Agriculture, for superintending its general interests. He then touches on the expediency of lowering the rate of interest on money; on the propriety of statistical investigations during the taking of the census; of an hydraulic cement; and of a reward for the discovery of coal. The flourishing condition of the seminaries of education forms the next topic of remark, and we discover several interesting facts in relation thereto. There are 6000 common schools in that state, receiving an annual patronage from government of $160,000, in which 300,000 children are taught. In 30 academies there are 22,218 students, of which number 688 only are studying Latin and Greek. In the three colleges of Columbia, Union, and Hamilton, there are 52 students, and 196 in two medical colleges. Large sums are appropriated to patronise these institutions. He recommends the education, at the public expense, of youth distinguished for moral and mental superiority.

"He proceeds to mention the militia in favourable terms, and though last, to discuss the important subject of the penitentiary system of punishment.

"He disapproves of the local organizations of the state prisons in New York, under which the substantial control of those establishments is invested in subordinate and improper agents. We are happy to observe the improvements suggested as to the plan of building the penitentiaries so as to consist of *solitary cells*. At Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, one is erected to contain 600 cells, each 8 feet by 8, which will not be so expensive as on the old plan. 'It will not be necessary to make it so strong; the prisoners will have no chance of forming conspiracies, and hence all escapes will be prevented. The expense of a military guard would be saved; the duration of punishment might be usefully abridged; and, above all, we might be certainly assured, if not of a reformation that will prevent, of a punishment that will deter, from the repetition of crimes.'

"On the whole, the speech is full of matter, and is praiseworthy for the principles it inculcates."

The legislature of Kentucky met on the 16th ult. and received a message from governor Adair. He speaks of the pressure in money transactions, now felt in the state, and appears to think it in the power of the legislature to relieve it, provided they can agree upon the means of doing it. The penitentiary establishment is recommended to the early attention of the legislature, as in consequence of the decayed state of the buildings, as well as because they were originally too small to allow of solitary confinement and convenient room for labour, their interposition is necessary. The funds of the state are sufficient for all necessary and some useful purposes, and it is therefore suggested for consideration, whether the present be not a favourable time to make valuable and lasting improvements. The navigation of the Ohio from Louisville to its mouth is considered of the first importance, and some remarks are made upon the propriety of completing one undertaking before another be commenced. The support of the university is strongly recommended, as besides its direct advantages, it will tend to place at the head of primary schools, teachers well qualified for their situations. The expense to the state of supporting lunatics, &c. is said to be considerable, and it is recommended that they be all placed at Lexington, for the benefit of the best medical advice.

The Rhode Island papers consider the election of James D'Wolf to the Senate of the United States as a disgrace to their state; Mr. D'Wolf having "amassed his princely fortune by the slave trade." This would hardly be believed, were it not confessed in a letter to the printer of a paper. He states, however, that he has been long out of the trade, though not so long as "Mr. ——, and some other pious people." The printer has left out the name of the gentleman alluded to, who is, he says, a most estimable citizen. There is another curious thing in Mr. D'Wolf's letter. He says that in any moral question that may arise in Congress, on which his opinion shall differ from that of his constituents, he shall give up his own and vote in conformity with theirs; but in any thing relating to their interest, should his opinion not agree with that of the people, he shall think it his duty to resign.

The cashier of the United States branch bank at Middleton (Con.) has been declared a defaulter to the amount of more than 50,000 dollars. He has not been so fortunate as some other spoliators, having been detected by the directors, and thrown into prison in New York. His sureties (for 50,000) have been prosecuted for the defalcation.

It is said that an extensive woollen manufactory in Kentucky has been leased to a company of manufacturers from England.

Population of Lexington, (Ky.)—White persons 3523, slaves 1641, free blacks 115; total 5279.

It is said by the Albany Statesman, that it has been agreed in caucus to remove Messrs. Clinton, Van Rensselaer and Holly, from the Board of Canal Commissioners, and that Messrs. Tompkins, Tibbits, and Strong of Ontario county, are to be appointed in their place.

In the New York assembly there are for the administration 54, against it 71.

Niles' Register states, "We learn that a particular account of the late tour of governor Cass, and the scientific gentlemen associated with him, will speedily be published. It is said that fifty points of latitude and a considerable number of longitude, have been ascertained, and that the collections in mineralogy, &c. are highly interesting."

Nantucket contains a population of 6,992 white, and 274 coloured persons. Of the whites, 2,731 are under 16 years of age. The females are probably more numerous than the males, but their numbers are not stated. Supposing them to be equal, it appears that of 2,130 females on the island, over 16 years of age, 399 were *widows*—nearly one in five of the whole. [*Niles' Reg.*

SAVANNAH.

The following extract presents a most deplorable picture of the calamitous visitation experienced by the city of Savannah during the last three months. We hope, however, as no new cases of the dreadful disease have been reported, that the hand of death is stayed. [*Norf. Her.*

Extract of a Letter from a Clergyman in Savannah (Geo.) to Dr. Hall, of Norfolk.

My Dear Sir—You request of me "a circumstantial account" of the affliction of this city during the present fall—this I could not give in the compass of a letter; but I will briefly state to you what may give some idea of the unparalleled sufferings of our people. It was not later than about the 20th of July, that the yellow fever began its ravages. For some time the disease was confined within very narrow limits; and its

subjects were (almost without exception) either strangers or persons of irregular habits*—These circumstances tended not a little to allay the fears of the citizens generally; and those who thought proper to leave their homes, were, (with some exceptions,) content with only removing to a more healthful part of the city. Through the month of August the disease became gradually extended over a great part of the city; but still was most prevalent in the neighbourhood where it originated; it was becoming too, more indiscriminate. Citizens, as well as strangers, and persons of the most correct manner of life, as well as the irregular, were occasionally found amongst its victims. With the increase of disease, and the knowledge of these circumstances of its progress, the alarm of our people increased.

We buried in August, 119,† and I think, our population may have decreased 1000, by removals from the city. Early in September, the unopposing character of the disease became notorious. It now fully appeared, that no character nor circumstances could give exemption from the fatal distemper. Old and young, temperate and intemperate, persons in every part of the city, and those who had been all their lives here, as well as non-residents, were increasing in number, among the sick, and dying, and the dead. No imagination will exceed the alarm, that prevailed in the city. Panic struck at the unprecedented calamity we were suffering, and anticipating from the then fearful mortality, the most awful history that was to follow, no one seemed to have a care, but to save his life, and the lives of those about him. To flee the seat of death, was generally regarded to be the way to escape, and by the 15th or 20th of the month, more than three-fourths of our entire white population had fled the city. Among them, two physicians—one of whom was an old residenter, and practitioner here. By, or before, the first of October, our city was so deserted, as not to contain a greater (reputed) population, than 1000—but notwithstanding this, almost total, abandonment of the city, the daily number of deaths never decreased; we buried 230, during the month of September; and of the 1000 who remained, 140 were buried within the first 16 days of October. The disease has not yet disappeared; but within the last 5 or 6 days, I have not known any new cases.

Among the dead are 7 or 8 physicians: doctors Berrien, Cutter, Colton, Warren, White, Kreeger, and a French physician, whose name I know not, and a gentleman whose name was Furth, of whom I am not certain whether he was a practitioner, or a student of physic. Three times, if not oftener, the same hearse has carried the husband and wife together, to be buried. Once, the husband, wife and children were all interred together. I have seen the father and his son, lying dead together. I called to console an amiable lady, who had the day before, buried her excellent mother—I found her sitting at the head of her husband's corpse!—That husband was Dr. Berrien, an able physician and an amiable man—the friend of many friends, and an honour to our city. But I need not particularize—my heart is weary with the sickening recollection. Alas, what have I not seen; I have been at the bedside of scarcely a less number than two hundred, who were dying of yellow fever, in its worst form. Wo upon wo, has filled almost all our houses, and entirely all our hearts.

But O, amazing goodness! I have walked through the fire, and it has not burnt me! myself, my wife, my children, my servants—are all alive; and all have been in health, until now! may not this have been done by the protecting hand of God, that those may not be discouraged, who should be sent after me, to the church, in this "valley of the shadow of death?" I remain your affectionate younger brother. W. C.

P. S.—The sexton has just obligingly called, and given me the official return, of the number of interments, from the 1st to the 23d October, inclusive (*i. e.*) 188. What a proportion, to be taken in 23 days, out of a less number than 1000. The whole number from the 1st of August, to the 23d October, 537, and to these you may add 20, for the last week in July. I doubt if this was ever equalled, in any part of the United States. W. C.

* The disease being confined to a small part of the city was regarded as a proof that it originated in some local cause, which it was hoped would be ascertained and removed.

† When I give you numbers, and when I speak of the population, the whites only are intended.

Poetry.

PORTUGUESE HYMN.

TO THE VIRGIN MARY, "THE STAR OF THE SEA."

Written at sea, on board the ship Santo Antonio.

Star of the wide and pathless sea!
Who lov'st on mariners to shine,
These votive garments wet, to thee,
We hang within thy holy shrine.
When o'er us flash'd the surging brine,
Amid the waving waters tost,
We called no other name but thine,
And hop'd when other hope was lost.
Ave Maris Stella!

Star of the vast and howling main!
When dark and lone is all the sky,
And mountain-waves o'er ocean's plain
Erect their stormy heads on high,
When virgins for their true-loves sigh,
They raise their weeping eyes to thee;—
The star of ocean heeds their cry,
And saves the foundering bark at sea.
Ave Maris Stella!

Star of the dark and stormy sea!
When wrecking tempests round us rave,
Thy gentle virgin-form we see
Bright rising o'er the hoary wave,
The howling storms that seem'd to crave
Their victims, sink in music sweet;
The surging seas recede to pave
The path beneath thy glistening feet.
Ave Maris Stella!

Star of the desert waters wild,
Who pitying hear'st the seaman's cry!
The God of mercy as a child
On that chaste bosom loves to lie;
While soft the chorus of the sky

Their hymns of tender mercy sing,
And angel voices name on high
The mother of the heavenly king.
Ave Maris Stella!

Star of the deep! at that blest name
The waves sleep silent round the keel,
The tempests wild their fury tame,
That made the deep's foundations reel;
The soft celestial accents steal
So soothing through the realms of wo,
The newly damn'd a respite feel
From torture in the depths below.
Ave Maris Stella!

Star of the mild and placid seas!
Whom rainbow rays of mercy crown,
Whose name thy faithful Portuguese,
O'er all that to the depths go down,
With hymns of grateful transport own,
When clouds obscure all other light,
And heaven assumes an awful frown,
The star of ocean glitters bright.
Ave Maris Stella!

Star of the deep! when angel lyres
To hymn thy holy name essay,
In vain a mortal harp aspires
To mingle in the mighty lay;
Mother of God! one living ray
Of hope our grateful bosoms fires—
When storms and tempests pass away,
To join the bright immortal choirs.
Ave Maris Stella!

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

THE PASSION.

By W. B. Tappan.

'Tis midnight; and on Olive's brow
The star is dimm'd that lately shone;
'Tis midnight; in the garden now,
The suffering Saviour weeps alone.

'Tis midnight; and from all remov'd,
Immanuel wrestles, lone, with fears;
E'en the disciple that he lov'd,
Heeds not his Master's grief and tears.

'Tis midnight; and for other's guilt
The Man of sorrows weeps in blood;
Yet he that hath in anguish knelt,
Is not forsaken by his God.

'Tis midnight; and from ether plains,
Is borne the song that angels know;
Unheard by mortals are the strains
That sweetly sooth the Saviour's wo.

Miscellany.

THE OBJECT OF EDUCATION.

The circulation of the North American Review is so rapidly increasing, that it will soon be useless for us to make extracts from it. At present, however, our selections from and notices of the work, may be seen by many who do not see the original, and we shall therefore from time to time fill a page from it, with the double view of adding to the value of the Recorder, and making the Review better known. The following is from a review, in the last number, of Edgeworth's Memoirs.

Much improvement has been effected of late years in education, but much remains to be done. The great mistake in the systems in practice here, especially in female education, is, we think, this, that it is made much more an object to fill, than to strengthen the mind. The memory does more than its share of work; the pupil should have tasks to be learned by rote, but he should too be often urged to an active and vigorous exertion of the intellect generally. History, geography, perhaps languages, and the elements of some sciences are taught, and the pupil is thought to become sensible, just in proportion as he becomes knowing: while in fact no one faculty of the mind is profited by such a course of study, excepting the memory. All the things which are now learned should certainly be taught, but they should not be considered, either by learner or instructer, as chiefly good in and for themselves. It must be always remembered by the master, and, if possible, distinctly explained to, and strongly impressed upon the pupil, that facts are principally and indeed almost solely valuable, when they are made materials for thought. It is one thing to add to the stores of the intellect, and another to enlarge its resources. Not unfrequently have minds of ordinary strength been weakened and cramped by the unwieldly mass of knowledge heaped upon them. It is dangerous to a common mind to have authorities constantly at hand, leading-strings at every step; for the exercise of judgment is an effort which will not be made, unless there be a call for it, and the power of judgment, if left unemployed and inactive, will sleep and die. No matter how much learning be acquired, but more should be done by exercises in composition, or in some similar way, to methodize and turn to good account the knowledge which is gained; to enrich and chasten the imagination, to sharpen the judgment, invigorate the power of ratiocination, and give force and activity to the whole intellect. By the present system, or rather by that exclusively in use some years since, a sensible boy or girl might pass the most improving and important years of life at school, and be very industrious there,

and yet come home possessed of less intellectual power, than when they went—because, during the greatest part of that time, the imagination and the judgment, the power of combining ideas and of examining truths, so far from being assisted and cultivated, were not even suffered to have their natural growth, but were carefully repressed and kept in a state of forced inaction, lest the attention should be impeded in its endeavour to fasten facts upon the memory. And this may be one reason why a boy's success at school is a very unsafe criterion, by which to judge of his future intellectual rank; a strong mind will act—will put forth its power in some direction or other, and a child, who is gifted with an ardent imagination and an active mind, may find it far more difficult to direct and fix his attention upon an object which does not interest him, and to chain down his other faculties, than a boy who is really duller and weaker. If the object of education be general improvement, there can be no doubt which of these systems should be adopted, unless improvement means the palsying, rather than the strengthening of the mind, the accumulating, rather than the using of knowledge; and if its object be to increase our power of amusing, interesting, and influencing those about us, there can be as little question. So far as colloquial talent is a good thing, we all know what exceeding dull work it is to listen to a conversation made up of other men's shreds and patches, and how gladly we fly from one who talks truisms and sage remarks, which he can neither appreciate nor maintain, to intercourse with a mind which acts for itself in fearlessness and independence; which habitually forms its own opinions, and knows upon what grounds. Intellectual strength and intellectual wealth generally go together in some degree, for the strongest mind cannot act without materials, and none but a mind of some strength can make large acquisitions, but they are not identically the same thing, and but little experience in life is needed to teach, that force and activity of mind are far more efficient in giving their possessor eminence and power, than a mere abundance of knowledge. When Bacon said, 'knowledge is power,' he referred to its effect upon mankind at large, and it is true that scientific and philosophical knowledge have given man a mastery over the elements, and bowed to his bidding earth, sea, and air; but the maxim certainly will not bear a very close application to individuals.

Criticisms on the Modern Poets.

THOMAS MOORE, ESQ.

"Some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them."

There are sometimes persons to be met with in life, whom the whole world seems to have conspired to treat with causeless and capricious indulgence, as if "mistaking the reverse of wrong for right;" they have imagined this would be an atonement for their hourly wrongs of insulted genius and neglected merit. Thus we often see, in an ill regulated and unhappy family, parents who are distinguished by their indiscriminate severity to their deserving offspring, fling the whole weight of their fondness into the scale of demerit and ingratitude, and like Titania, become "enamoured of an ass,"—and their folly becomes at once their punishment and their degradation. When the world is thus determined, it is incredible with what punctuality it fulfils the conditions of this compact—how it praises and patronises its adopted favourite—how it exaggerates all its merits, goes bail for all its offences, as if there were no merits but what its praise must sanction, and no offences but what its protection must justify; let a being so favoured and so flattered be guilty of every irregularity—let him have insulted decency, profaned religion, trampled on social order, and traduced constituted authorities, society still hugs him to her bosom, and whispers in a palliating tone, that it is Alcibiades defacing the images of the gods; doubtless the apology is sufficient—*but not to me.* The "Enfant gâté," whether of domestic or literary life, deserves sore and severe chastisement, and he shall have it, "whether he will bear, or whether he will forbear;" let it be remembered too, that the Enfant gâté, whether in the nursery or in life, always betrays the same tendencies, the same petulance, premature restlessness, and disgusting frowardness. He is always the "vaulting ambition that o'erleaps itself, and falls on t'other side." His too is the "tetchy and wayward infancy," that fights with the breast that feeds him; that "crams and blasphemes the feeder"—or, to drop the language of metaphor, such a being can at once borrow his subsistence from the powers he vilifies—accuse the atmosphere he lives in for the breath it lends him—and insult the laws for the protection they afford him for abusing them. Yet this shall be a being flattered and caressed, noticed by nobles, and adored by women of rank and fashion.

He shall pass like a meteor from England to Ireland, shedding a brilliant, ominous, and pestilential glare on both countries, and our literary astronomers shall apply their telescopes, and call this newly discovered planet—Moore.

From what the eminence of Moore has risen it would be rather difficult for candid criticism to discover. He is best described by negatives. He is *not* a man of *superlative* poetical powers: lord Byron is far beyond him in all the true essence of genius, in all the constituent and elementary parts of a genuine poet. He is not a man of profound research and erudition. He is no explorer of the untravelled deserts of the soul; not a man who can drop his line of investigation further than ever did "plummet sound," and bring it up tinged with the proof of his startling and profound discoveries. Wordsworth, and even Wilson, and *the school of lakers*, with all the distortion of their affectation, all their lisping and babyish mawkishness, all the sickening and yet insulting arrogance of their egotism, know more of human concerns and the human heart than Moore does, however they disguise and abuse the knowledge they possess. He is not a man of acute and deep observation in human life; a man skilled in detecting and tracing the changes that the mind undergoes from the modifications of society, the vicissitudes of manners and opinions, and from the topographical influence of local residence and incidental proximity to objects different from what it is usually familiar with. Scott and Hogg, and even Southey, know infinitely more, and have infinitely more the power of painting freshly and vividly the changes of the mind as caused by what may be called the various *dispensations of manners*, often as powerful as the dispensations of religion in producing an exterior revolution in the aspect of society.

There is nothing in the writings—there is nothing in the mind of Moore, that can furnish the brilliant and chivalric paintings of Scott (for Scott is a painter more than a poet); nothing that can furnish the strong national characterism—the wild picturesque, and yet vital, delineation of the untamed ferocity of the mountain chiefs, the lifeless austerity, the super-human abstraction, the αβιωτος βιος, (mixed with the wildest enthusiasm of military glory, and the implacable obstinacy of Judaical pertinacity, singularly and inharmoniously blended with the language, not the spirit, of the gospel) in his representation of the covenanters—nothing that can, in fact, give us the wild, and yet awful, picture of a nation in masquerade, *all disguised*, yet *all known*, the fantastic spirit of some presiding demon in the garb of religion, arraying all in their appropriate costume, dictating to all their creed of blasphemy and nonsense, like the devil Milinax, in the Duke of Guise, prompting them with their parts when they fail, and finally, disrobing them of their borrowed vestments at the hour of their departure, and whispering to them the fallacy of their pretensions, and the awful reality of their despair. Such are the powerful pictures that the great writer we allude to has drawn of periods more interesting as they become more obscure from the interruptions of time, the incuriosity of contemporaries, and the infidelities of tradition.

In what, then, is Moore eminent? Not in the naked and gigantic sublimity of absolute genius; not in the piercing and profound anatomy of the human heart; not in the keen, various, and amusive display of the anomalies of human life; not in the strong and thrilling personification of human passion; not in the salutary and heart-touching impression of one mighty moral. He has fluttered "about and about" Parnassus, sending to us occasionally music from the breezes he inhales, and colours from the flower he visits: but every breeze brings withering on its wings, and every flower in its fragrance reminds one of the blossoms of the Upas tree: it is all infection and death—*death*, not *mortal only*. In adverting to the poetry of Moore, I am forced to undertake a painful task; it is horrible to excruciate morbid impurity by the touch, that, in order to heal, must first feel, expose, and exasperate the seat where the venom is lodged; but it is necessary.

Of a poet in *our days* much is demanded, and much must be paid. Thank God, we have done with the times when the first writers in Britain were obliged to saturate a royal mistress with fulsome praise more prostituted (if possible) than her person, and to beg their "leave to toil" of a wretch who sometimes sold it in the wantonness of regal prostitution, sometimes in the venality of regal rapacity, and sometimes in the comparatively innocent intoxication of the vanity of her feelings or her profession. The prefaces and the prologues of Dryden, and Lee, and Otway, bear melancholy attestations to this truth; they were forced to flatter for bread; they "crouched like hounds beneath the lash"—and a bitter lash it was: but *they* had at least the ex-

cuse of the impostor's wife in Henry the Sixth:

> Alack, sir,
> We *did it all for pure need.*

Dependent as they were on the smiles of a courtezan (and through her on the favour of a witty, but voluptuous monarch, alternately the degraded pensioner of Louis XIV. and the slave of the wretched French prostitutes, purchased and sent over for the empoisonment of his political principles, the degradation of his character, and the abject enthralment of all his energies, intellectual and moral) they may perhaps be forgiven. Prostituted genius was their crime; but want was their apology.

Has Moore such an apology? No: he had no need to bow the head before voluptuousness, or flatter royal mistresses. His errors are of his own seeking. His vice is his own choice. He is criminal, not from the necessity, but the love of crime. What shall we say of the man who, without any claims from personal necessity (such as it must be feared far more distinguished minds, and far better hearts, have proved and suffered,) turns *volunteer in the cause of impurity*, who blasphemes decency without the pretext of a bribe from necessity, and, reversing the accusation of satan, "*serves the Devil for nought.*" Such has been Moore from his youth: his earliest efforts resembled a kind of premature dance round a Priapus. The loathsome obscenity and wild contortions of his motions were forgiven or overlooked. We all fondly hoped that a phœnix would arise from the impure and fetid ashes of Tom Little; that, to borrow the language of Buchanan,* the child who had "*perfected the praise* of the infamous phallic idol in the procession of Juggernaut," might yet become a convert to Christianity, and renounce the vile and impure idolatries of his infancy.

Has this been the case?—I must with revolting hand and pen track him through his course of unrepudiated indecency—unqualified jacobinism; and, I dread to add, unrepented infidelity. Of the two former, the most ample proofs are to be found in his writings; the last must be referred to his conscience; and first of the first, I hesitate not to say, that Moore is a writer whose impurity is the most wilful, deliberate, and persevering, that ever insulted heaven, and contaminated society.

* Vide the worship of Juggernaut, as described by Buchanan himself.

The maxim of the ancient orator, that action—action—action, was the soul of oratory, appears to have been translated by Moore, construing the essence of poetry into lust—lust—lust. I can find nothing else in his writings. I have read them all. How much he owes me for reading them; how much more may he owe me for distinguishing him as he deserves—as the high priest, not even of the *Venus semireducta*, but of the "dark veiled" Cotytto—of the Venus γενετυλλις. If want of decency is want of sense, what shall we think of the man who insults both by going out of his way in the restless search after obscenity, who can publish such lines as these:

> Thus in our looks *some propagation* lies,
> For we *make babies* in each other's eyes.

Who can insult the Deity in his wrath, and his creatures amid the terrors that the visible display of that wrath excites, even amid the *brute* creation, and deify lust in the lines that follow:

> Loud howled the wind in the ruins above,
> And murmured the warnings of time o'er our head.*
> While *fearless we offered devotions to love*,
> The rude rock our pillow, the rushes our bed.
>
> * * * * * * *

I shudder to trace the rest—

> *Dread was the lightning*, and horrid its glare,
> *But it showed me my Julia in languid delight.*

Of the Julia (whoever she was) and her lover, we have only to regret that the lightning spared two such monsters to insult the atmosphere they breathed and polluted with their protracted existence.

Take another specimen. Moore is not satisfied with the copious resources of his own imagination—fertile in inexhaustible impurity—he flies to the "integros fontes," to the French writers. He "pumps for life the putrid well of death." He disdains not to translate into English the vilest sillinesses of French epigrams; for example:

> Your mother says, my little Venus,
> There's something not correct between us,
> And you're as much in fault as I;
> Now, on my soul, my little Venus,
> It would not be correct between us,
> To let your mother tell a lie.

The poetry of this morceau is as contemptible as its sentiment is disgusting; one might exclaim with Hector M'Intyre, in the Antiquary, "I vow I have not heard

* Bad grammar is not seldom combined with the outrages of blasphemy.—Vide *Paine, passim.*

a worse halfpenny ballad;" yet thus low can Moore descend to the worship of obscenity; others kneel, but he submits to grovel. Endowed at least with a rich and brilliant imagination, with a power of painting all that is bright and beautiful in *physical* creation, all that is splendid and voluptuous in mortal existence, with a felicitous fluency of versification—"unimitated and unimitable"—with a power of deluging the ear and soul with an inebriating torrent of melody; with all this, Moore, if I may dare to borrow the application, is willing to "count all things lost" if he "may win" the demon of impurity, "and be found in him;" as he doubtless will one day, however he may deride the creed that whispers the prediction. I am weary of this vile research; it is like the loathsome labour of Celia's lover in Swift. I have only to add, that neither time or conscience have arrested the hand, or smitten the heart of Moore. He sings on his song of voluptuousness without any "mitigation or remorse of voice." The "floating brothel," as Voltaire called the Island of Love in the Lusiad of Camoens, is a nunnery, a temple of vestals, contrasted with the seraglio scenes so vividly painted in the "Veiled Prophet;" it is a fountain of the nymphs, compared with the loose, luxurious, and triumphant tide of debauchery that overwhelms every page of the description of the "Feast of Roses."

I pass on to the next charge—that of jacobinism. I hate the cant of politics. I neither understand nor speak it. By jacobinism I mean in general a wanton and wilful defiance of constituted authority on earth, combined (as it always is) with a defiance of that power from which all mortal power is derived; an insulting disregard of "the powers that be;" BECAUSE "those powers are ordained of God," a refusal alike to render unto Cæsar those things that are Cæsar's, or to God the things that are God's: if I were required to find in the writings of Moore the proofs of this spirit, I must answer in the words of the old Calvinistic Scotch woman, who, when asked by an Arminian divine, where she found her favourite doctrine of predestination in the Bible, answered "*in every page of it.*" When jacobinical rancour is combined with popish virulence, the union produces the most deadly compound of human malignity. Power, however constituted, or however existing, becomes the objects of its unmitigated and immitigable hostility.

The rulers of the people must be slandered and vilified, not because they are vicious or weak, despotic or lax, but because they are our rulers. Moore can descend to the vapid vulgarities of the "Twopenny Post-bag," and the "Fudge Family," sooner than not "speak evil of dignities." He abuses the regent of England for *neglecting his wife*—he abuses the king of Prussia *for being too fond of his wife:*—all incongruities must embrace, all contradictions must agree, provided he can *abuse a sovereign;* that is the grand point, and to that, consistency, principle, feeling, truth, every thing, must be sacrificed; and the true jacobin says, like lord Richly, in Fielding's old play, "let them go, egad."

Persons in power must be abused, that is the first article of the jacobinic creed; *they are the loftiest flowers of the garden, they must be cropped first.* Mr. Moore, who assumes to be a classical scholar, (as a translator of Anacreon,) must understand the allusion. Johnson laughed at Waller's hope of establishing his claim to immortality on "verses addressed to a lady who could sleep when she pleased:" and "verses addressed to a lady who could do any thing but sleep when she pleased:" but Waller was a rhyming trifler, without intellectual eminence, or any pretension to poetical distinction, except what might be derived from the evanescent glories of his tributes to a Sacharissa and an Amoret. But what shall we say of the man who, possessed of powers that might in their legitimate use encounter half the writers of the day, and deem their defeat but a "puny battle," rests his claim to immortality on a satire against *stays, wigs, and whiskers;* and imagines that fame may be obtained by a disgusting expatiation on trifles that would disgrace the tattle of a provoked chambermaid, the malice of a discarded governante, or the ribaldry of a disgraced porter.

This man has risen by satire; but what is his satire? That which the object may be proud of. He grasps at the straws on the surface; he spurns the pearls he has not the courage to dive for. I have but two pictures more of Moore to present, and then I have done with him. I have seen him (any one may see him) seated at the piano, surrounded by simpering matrons, some unconscious, some but *too conscious,* of the meaning of his warblings; rank after rank of beautiful unmarried females trembling on the verge of impurity, as they crowded and *blushed* around their favourite minstrel. I have seen him at *his state dinner* in Ireland, surrounded by the shouting O'Donnells and O'Connells, and all the endless O's of Irish genealogy, pledging his soul to them in rosy libations of wine for

his *patriotism, and proving it by his determined irrevocable absenteeism;* blessed pledge, such as the Irish, when flattered into popularity by English readers and English booksellers, never fail to give their country. He expends not during his stay in that country, to which he professes his utter devotion, half the money his intoxicated countrymen lavish on him in one absurdly magnificent feast; half did I say, the Mendicity Society in Dublin would be rejoiced to receive the money one *individual briefless barrister* mortgages the *profits of a whole term for,* to purchase the honour of dining with Moore, whose only proof of patriotism is robbing the country he has deserted. I have done with him. What can contempt heap further on a man than to call him *what he is:*—a jacobin in politics, an *absentee patriot,* a reckless sensualist in poetry, a practical infidel in religion. "Such be thy gods, O Israel!"—wo, wo to those who bow before them.

The admirers of chess will very shortly be gratified by the appearance of a selection of 50 games from above 300, played by the celebrated automaton chess player during its late public exhibition, against various opponents, some of whom rank amongst the first players in England. Many of these games are admirably well contested. In all of them the automaton gave a pawn and the first move to his adversary, with nearly uninterrupted success; and the various and skilful combinations it displays, form a fine study for the amateur.

Agriculture.

A Discourse read before the Essex Agricultural Society, in Massachusetts, February 21, 1820; *suggesting some improvements in the agriculture of the county. By Timothy Pickering, president of the society.*

Gentlemen,

The secretary has put into my hands a vote of the society, requesting me "to make to it such communications as may in my opinion most conduce to the interest of agriculture."

This was an unlooked-for request. I have myself much to learn from observing farmers, of longer experience, and whose attentions have been exclusively devoted to husbandry. Mine, since I became a farmer, have been diverted by other pursuits; so that at intervals only my thoughts have been turned to this subject.

No one doubts the importance of our profession: and the actual formation of our society is a declaration that improvements in it are necessary. But the field of agriculture is of boundless extent; and though traversed for some thousands of years by the greater portion of the human race, yet by no one, nor by all combined, has a complete survey been accomplished. Every year, and every day, presents something new: and even of old things, the practices of ages, there still exist diversities of opinions. For instance, which is preferable, deep or shallow ploughing? Should manures be spread on the surface, or be buried by the plough? If the latter, at what depth, to produce the greatest effect, with the most lasting fertility? Should manure be applied in its rough, coarse and unfermented state, or, by keeping and repeated turnings, be more or less rotted? These are points which appear to me deeply to affect the interests of agriculture. On these therefore I will give you my opinion, enlightened by the observations of intelligent husbandmen. I will then advert to a few other topics which demand your attention; *dwelling* on one of them—root crops for the food of live stock—as lying at the foundation of an improved agriculture.

On Deep Ploughing and Manuring.

For myself, I entertain no doubt of the utility of deep ploughing; not at once, in our lands in general, but by an increase of two or three inches at every annual ploughing, until the earth be stirred and pulverised to the depth of ten or twelve inches. Indian corn, planted in such a mass of loosened earth, would not, I am persuaded, ever suffer by ordinary droughts. Like a sponge, it would absorb a vast quantity of rain water, and become a reservoir to supply the wants of that and of all other plants. Nothing is more common, in a dry summer, than the rolling of the leaves of corn; and that circumstance is often mentioned as an evidence of the severity of the drought. This rolling of the leaves of Indian corn, is the consequence, in part, of scant manuring, but still more of shallow ploughing. Few, perhaps, are aware of the depth to which the roots of plants will penetrate in a deeply loosened earth. A gentleman,* much inclined to agricultural inquiries and observations, informed me, near fifty years ago, that seeing some men digging a well, in a hollow place, planted with Indian corn, then at its full growth, he stopped to examine how far its roots had

* Peter Oliver, esq. then a judge of the superior court of Massachusetts.

descended; and he traced them to the depth of nine feet. The soil was an accumulation of rich earth which had run or been thrown into the hollow.

The seed of the common turnip, sown in warm weather, and on a soil sufficiently moist, I have known to vegetate in about eight-and-forty hours; and in only four or five days afterwards, I found the plants had sent down roots to the depth of four or five inches.

I have often noticed forest trees blown down by violent winds, whose roots, of the same species, were very differently formed. Such as had grown in grounds having a hard, impenetrable pan of clayey gravel, at the depth of twelve or eighteen inches from the surface, exhibited a flat mass of roots; while others, torn up from a deep loam, or loamy gravel, showed downward roots of several feet in length.

About five months ago, I received from England a pamphlet, written by one of the most distinguished agricultural writers in that country—Arthur Young. It was a lecture read, a few years before, to the British Board of Agriculture, of which Mr. Young was the secretary. Its title is, "On the Husbandry of three celebrated British Farmers, Messrs. Bakewell, Arbuthnot and Ducket," all eminent for genius, enterprise, application, and long experience. It was to do honour to their memories, "and to bring to recollection the means by which those celebrated practitioners, in the first and most important of all arts, carried their agriculture to a perfection unknown before," that the lecture was written and published. And this, Mr. Young observes, would be more peculiarly useful, because those men, "confining themselves to practice alone, had left no register of their own meritorious deeds." I will present to you the substance of the information contained in this pamphlet, as in itself very important, and because the practice of Arbuthnot and Ducket has a direct bearing on the points I am now considering—*deep ploughing* and *manuring*.

"Mr. Ducket had sand, and sandy soils, alone, to deal with; but Arbuthnot's land classed among those harsh, wet, tenacious loams which are usually called clay, and ought to be esteemed such, relative to every circumstance that attaches to difficulty and management." Passing by what Mr. Young says of Arbuthnot's draining operations, I content myself with mentioning the principle of that improvement: "Lay your land dry, whatever may be the method pursued, before you attempt any thing else."

"In respect to tillage, Mr. Arbuthnot carried it to great perfection: He invented a swing plough for a pair of horses and the general depth of six inches, and a much larger one with wheels, for gaining the depth of twelve, and even of eighteen, for some peculiar crops, especially madder. Upon the advantages of deep ploughing he never had the least hesitation; but always declared that in all he had read or heard, he never met with one argument against the practice that had with him the smallest weight."—"In the essential operation of ploughing, he considered one earth (that is, one ploughing) well timed, and of a right depth, as being much more efficacious than that repetition of tillage so common in every district."*

A judicious rotation, or round of crops, has long been considered, in England, essential to good husbandry: and so it is by skilful farmers in our own country; particularly in the middle states, where clover, so highly important in the rotation, has, for more than thirty years, been rendered wonderfully productive, by the application of plaister of Paris. The most usual course in England has been (excepting on stiff clayey soils) first year turnips, manured and kept clean by hoeing; the second year barley, with clover seed; the third year the clover mown for hay; and its second crop, at wheat seed time, ploughed in, and, where necessary to fill the seams, the ground harrowed, the wheat sown, and then harrowed in. This is called "wheat upon a clover lay." But by the long and frequent repetition of clover, (that is, once in *four* years) in their rotations, lands in England became (as they express it) "sick of clover:" and I have been informed that some lands in our middle states, long subjected to the like application of clover, exhibit like symptoms of disease or failure. But Mr. Arbuthnot introduced clover once in *three* years, without suffering by such more frequent repetition. "He attributed the failure of this plant to shallow and ill executed ploughing: the result (says Mr. Young) justified his opinion."

(*To be continued.*)

* The repetition of tillage here reprobated, refers, I presume, to the numerous ploughings given by many English farmers, at that period, preparatory to the putting in of their crops; which the single, deep and "efficacious" ploughing of Arbuthnot rendered unnecessary. Were our ploughing for Indian corn and root crops alike *deep* and *efficacious*, *before planting*, shallow tillage (called horse-hoeing) with light ploughs, during their growth, would suffice.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN.

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Congress.—The present session of Congress opened with a contested election for speaker of the House of Representatives. The final vote was for Mr. Taylor 76, Mr. Lowndes 44, Mr. Smith 27, scattering 1. There seems to be no doubt that it was conducted with a view to the Missouri question; but we are not thereby enabled to estimate with certainty the strength of the parties; for though Mr. Taylor has been chosen, there was for a long time a majority divided between Messrs. Lowndes and Smith. We look with great anxiety for the decision of the question; and with much hope that the free party will be more temperate and more firm than they were last year.

The Senate appointed a committee to consider whether any, and if any, what measures are necessary for the admission of Missouri into the union. A series of propositions concerning the debts for public lands, has been submitted for consideration by Mr. Walker of Alabama. The first proposes that the sums now unpaid, exclusive of interest, shall be divided into equal annual instalments, bearing interest only from the time when they become due: the second permits the purchasers of land to surrender it in payment of their debts; should the land be sold for a greater sum than one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, the excess shall be paid to the person surrendering the certificate, provided that it do not exceed the amount already paid on such lands: the third proposes that five-eighths of the purchase money shall be accepted in full payment: the fourth permits the holders of land to return a part of the land. The proposition that was before Congress last session, for altering the constitution, so as to elect members of Congress and electors of president and vice-president by districts, has been again brought forward.

In the House of Representatives, some resolutions have been brought forward to reduce the salary of the members. The constitution of Missouri has been referred to a select committee, in naming the members of which the speaker has chosen his opponents for the chair: Messrs. Lowndes, Sergeant, and Smith.

A majority of the New York legislature is composed of the political enemies of governor Clinton, and they appear disposed to let their hostility appear very plainly. A committee who were instructed to examine into the expediency of answering his speech, have reported that it was unnecessary. The report itself is, as stated by the editor of the National Gazette, intended as a reply. The committee think the habit of opening the session with a speech very monarchical, and give it as their opinion, that it may hereafter be *sent* instead of being *spoken*, without any disrespect to the legislature. Some resolutions concerning Missouri, will be found under the proper head. The decision of the vice-president's accounts was hastened through the legislature with a precipitation that looks rather suspicious. It will put an end to some legal proceedings that had been instituted by the attorney general against him.

Correction.—The critiques on Lord Byron and Thomas Moore, published in Nos. 20 and 21 of this volume, were taken from the New Monthly Magazine. It is the more necessary to notice the omission to state this before, as a writer in the Georgetown Metropolitan has given this paper credit for the former as an original piece.

Record.

From the Boston Daily Advertiser.

MASSACHUSETTS CONVENTION.

Wednesday, November 15.

The delegates elected to meet in convention for the purpose of revising the constitution of this commonwealth, in pursuance of the act of the 16th of June last, assembled at the state house in the representatives' chamber.

At ten o'clock, his honour William Phillips, the lieutenant governor, and a delegate for the

town of Boston, called the House to order. The Hon. Judge Jackson, of Boston, Mr. Pickman, of Salem, Mr. Fay, of Cambridge, Mr. Sibley, of Sutton, and Mr. Fowler, of Westfield, were appointed a committee to examine the credentials of the members, and report whether a quorum was present. The committee having reported that a sufficient number of members were duly elected to proceed to business, it was voted that the House proceed to the choice of a secretary, and the Hon. Judge Story, of Salem, Mr. Greenleaf, of Quincy, Russell, of Mendon, Mr. Prince, of Boston, and Mr. Bliss, of Springfield, were appointed a committee to receive and count the votes. The ballots being taken, the committee reported that the whole number of votes for secretary were 275, and that there were 191 for Benjamin Pollard, esq. and that he was chosen. Mr. Pollard was called in, and was sworn to the faithful performance of the duties of the office.

It was voted that the House proceed to the choice of a president, and it was ordered that the same committee receive and count the votes. The ballots being taken and counted, the committee reported that the whole number of votes was 353, necessary for a choice 177, that the Hon. JOHN ADAMS had 335, and was chosen.

This vote being declared, the Hon. Chief Justice Parker of Boston, rose to offer a resolution to the House. After adverting to the advanced age and renowned character of the gentleman who had been chosen to preside over the deliberations of the House, and to the fact that he had been forty years ago a representative in the convention which formed the constitution that the House was now called upon to revise, he suggested the propriety of paying him some tribute of respect. He said it would be recollected that from the year 1765 to the revolution, Mr. Adams was one of the most distinguished asserters of the freedom of his country, and made the boldest stand in defence of its rights. By recurrence to the journals of the day, it will be found that the political research and great talents displayed in the public proceedings, had great influence in exciting the spirit of the revolution. He said that it was remarkable that one so ardent in the support of his opinions was able to check his own feelings and those of the public, and to observe a temperate course so honourable to him and to the country.

In 1770, when the country was in alarm and under a great excitement in consequence of the killing and wounding of citizens by the British soldiers stationed in Boston, this firm and resolute man, though he had been opposing the encroachments of the British government, had the hardihood to come forward in defence of the soldiers, and show that the laws were to govern. In 1774, he was elected to the continental congress, and was one of the most distinguished of that body. Though he did not draft the declaration of independence, he was one of the most able and resolute supporters of it. In 1779, he was chosen one of the delegates to the convention for the purpose of forming the constitution of this commonwealth. And in that body his labours were conspicuous. He carried to it a degree of profound knowledge which few men have possessed, and to that we are indebted for many of the excellent provisions of the constitution. He was soon after appointed by Congress on a mission to Europe for the purpose of conciliating the favour of and obtaining assistance from the nations on the continent. He had the ability and address to persuade the cautious Dutch that it was for their interest to advance money for carrying on the war of the revolution. He remained in Europe during the war, where he performed great services to his country, and had the courage to obtain a treaty of peace on favourable terms to us, contrary to the wishes of our principal ally. On his return to this country he was received with unreserved public applause. He was afterwards associated in the government with Washington, as vice-president of the United States, and succeeded him as president. He had since lived in honourable retirement, and had preserved to a late period the vigour of his mind, of which he has given frequent proofs. He had finally been chosen by the unanimous voice of his townsmen to represent them in this convention. Under these circumstances he (the chief justice) thought it proper to pay him the testimony of their respect, and he proceeded to read the following resolution:—

Whereas the Hon. JOHN ADAMS, a member of this convention and elected the president thereof, has for more than half a century devoted the great powers of his mind and his profound wisdom and learning to the service of his country and of mankind:

In fearlessly vindicating the rights of the North American provinces against the usurpation and encroachments of the superintending government:

In diffusing a knowledge of the principles of civil liberty among his fellow subjects, and exciting them to a firm and resolute defence of the privileges of freemen:

In early conceiving, asserting and maintaining the justice and practicability of establishing the independence of the United States of America:

In giving the powerful aid of his political knowledge in the formation of the constitution of this his native state, which constitution became in a great measure the model of those which were subsequently formed:

In conciliating the favours of foreign powers —and obtaining their countenance and support in the arduous struggle for independence:

In negotiating the treaty of peace which secured forever the sovereignty of the United States, and in defeating all attempts to prevent it, and especially in preserving in that treaty the vital increase of the United States:

In demonstrating to the world in his defence of the constitutions of the several United States, the contested principle since admitted as an axiom, that checks and balances in the legislative power, are essential to true liberty:

In devoting his time and talents to the service of the nation in the high and important trusts of vice-president and president of the United States:

And lastly, in passing an honourable old age in dignified retirement, in the practice of all the domestic virtues, thus exhibiting to his countrymen and to posterity an example of true greatness of mind and of genuine patriotism:

Therefore, *Resolved*, that the members of this convention, representing the people of the commonwealth of Massachusetts, do joyfully avail themselves of this opportunity to testify

their respect and gratitude to this eminent patriot and statesman, for the great services rendered by him to his country, and their high gratification that at this late period of life, he is permitted by Divine Providence to assist them with his counsel in revising the constitution which forty years ago his wisdom and prudence assisted to form.

Resolved, That a committee of —— members be appointed by the chair to communicate this proceeding to the Hon. John Adams, to inform him of his election to preside in this body, and to introduce him to the chair of this convention.

These resolutions being seconded by the honourable Holder Slocumb and read from the chair, on motion of the honourable Mr. Webster, the blank was filled with twelve, and it was ordered that the committee should be nominated from the chair. The following gentlemen were appointed: honourable Messrs. Gray, of Boston, Varnum, of Dracut, Morton, of Dorchester, Mr. Fisher, of Westborough, Rev. Dr. Baldwin, of Boston, Dana, of Beverly, Starkweather, of Worthington, Mr. Boylston, of Princeton, general Mattoon, of Amherst, Mr. Melville, of Boston, honourable Messrs. Hoar, of Lincoln, and Bartlett, of Haverhill. Mr. Starkweather not having taken his seat, the honourable Mr. Fowler of Westfield, was appointed in his place.

Mr. Dana observed, that nobody was more ready to accord, in a tribute of praise to the venerable president elect, than himself. Yet, perhaps, he might not vote, in this case, precisely for the same reason, and on the same grounds, as were stated in the preamble to the resolve. The preamble, among other things, alluded to the efforts of the venerable gentleman, in defeating the intrigues against the peace of 1783. This was founded on a supposition, that the court of France had entered into intrigues, on that occasion, against the United States. He doubted whether there was such evidence of that fact, as that we ought to assert it. This resolution would be read abroad, as well as at home, and we ought to be careful therefore as to what is alleged. He believed that no public history had given an account of such intrigues; and we are in possession of no regular documents to prove the allegation. He doubted therefore the propriety of making this declaration, under such circumstances.

Mr. Blake, of Boston, expressed his satisfaction with the preamble as it stood. He believed it to be true, that the documents existed by which it could be proved.

Judge Davis, of Boston, said it was a delicate subject, and doubted whether the expression might not usefully be modified. It was desirable, he thought, to avoid any thing which might be injudiciously interpreted.

Chief justice Parker observed, that he should be sorry that the preamble should contain any thing which should not be satisfactory to every gentleman present. He had no doubt, however, of the truth of this part of it. He had the pleasure of knowing a gentleman, now a citizen of Maine, an early friend to this country, and an enlightened friend to the liberties of all countries, and who was at that time, in a situation to command the best sources of information; and from him, as well as from other sources, he had been satisfied as to the truth of the statement in the preamble in this particular. He wished, however, to avoid any thing which might lead to a protracted discussion, and should be quite willing to adopt any modification of the expression which should render the resolution more conformable to the sense of the gentlemen present.

Judge Story observed, that he had a view of this question, somewhat different from that taken by the honourable gentleman from Groton. The preamble to these resolutions professed to contain a short summary of the political services of the eminent and distinguished man, who had just been elected president of this body; and, for his part, he should have thought that enumeration of services most unsatisfactory, if it had not made mention of this, in his opinion, most important and essential public service. He believed no act of the venerable gentleman's life had been more marked with firmness, ability, and undaunted courage. To pass over this, would be, he thought, to deprive him of one of his best earned, and most valued laurels. If this affair had not become matter of history, it was time it had. Its truth was well known, to those of this generation, who had attended to the subject, and who were acquainted with the history of the treaty of 1783, and he thought nothing more fit than that an expression of the sense of this convention, on this important topic, should now be made, since the truth of the fact, he presumed, existed in the knowledge and belief of every gentleman present. He gave to this resolution his most cordial support on all accounts, and not the least on account of the just tribute paid to the private virtues of the object of it. Virtues, by which it is shown how much the value of distinguished talents is increased by an association with spotless character, and the qualities which dignify retirement.

A modification was subsequently made in the phraseology of this part of the preamble, by the honourable mover; after which, the resolutions were *unanimously* adopted.

The committee then proceeded to wait on the president elect, and the resolution was read to him by the honourable Mr. Morton. On the return of the committee to the house, they made report, and communicated the following written answer from Mr. Adams, in which he declined the appointment.

"*Fellow Citizens*—An election at my age and in my circumstances, by the free suffrages of so ample a representation of the fortunes and talents—the experience and wisdom—the authority, the virtues and the piety of the ancient and renowned state of Massachusetts, I esteem the purest and fairest honour of my life, and my gratitude is proportionally ardent and sincere. I pray you, gentlemen, to present to the convention my most cordial thanks.

"Your enumeration of services performed for this country, recals to my recollection the long services and succession of great and excellent characters with whom I have had the honour to act in the former part of my life, and to whose exertions I have endeavoured to add my feeble aid. Characters who have been employed by Divine Providence, as instruments in preserving

and securing the unexampled liberty which this nation now possesses.

"That liberty which is the source of all our happiness and prosperity; a prosperity which cannot be contemplated by any virtuous mind without gratitude, consolation and delight—may it be perpetual. Gentlemen, as my age is generally known, it will readily be believed that my forces are too far exhausted to perform the arduous duties of the high office which the benevolence of the convention has assigned to me.

"I am therefore under the necessity to request permission of the convention to decline the appointment, and to pray that some other gentleman may be elected, whose vigorous age, and superior talents, may conduct their deliberations with more convenience to themselves, and with greater satisfaction to the people of the commonwealth at large.

"JOHN ADAMS."

This answer having been read, on motion of the honourable Mr. Bliss, it was resolved that the House proceed to the choice of a president in the place of the honourable John Adams, who declined the appointment. It was ordered that the honourable Messrs. Wells of Boston, Lyman of Northampton, Lincoln of Worcester, Davis of Plymouth, and Sullivan of Brookline, be a committee to receive and count the votes. The ballots being taken, the committee reported that the whole number of votes was 388—necessary for a choice 195—that the honourable Isaac Parker had 195, and was chosen. The other votes were for the honourable judge Story 130, honourable John Phillips 52, and eleven scattering.

This result being declared, chief justice Parker addressed the House in substance as follows:

He said he felt highly honoured by the appointment. That he had been for thirty years unaccustomed to the proceedings of deliberative bodies, and was probably not so competent as many gentlemen about him to perform the duties of the office; but he felt it his duty to accept, trusting that many gentlemen more versed in the forms of proceedings in legislative bodies would aid him with their advice and counsel. He could undertake that in the exercise of his duties he would be strictly impartial, and that he would be ready to listen to the superior wisdom of those about him. If he had preconceived opinions with respect to the constitution, they should not interfere with the impartial discharge of his duty. It would be one object to preserve order in the deliberations and proceedings of the House. This would not be difficult, seeing how the House was composed, being a fair representation of a people remarkable for their habits of order and decorum. With respect to any thing in which greater experience was requisite, he should rely on the aid of gentlemen capable of rendering the assistance he should require. He proceeded to declare his acceptance of the appointment, and was conducted to the chair.

On motion of general Varnum, of Dracut, it was ordered that the secretary be directed to furnish a competent number of copies of the constitution of the commonwealth interleaved, for the use of the members of the House.

On motion of Mr. Prince, of Boston, the House resolved that they would now attend prayers. On the invitation of the president, the Rev. Dr. Freeman led in the devotions of the House.

On motion of the honourable Mr. Morton, of Dorchester, it was ordered that a chair should be provided on the right of the president, and appropriated as the permanent seat of the honourable John Adams.

On motion of lieutenant governor Phillips, modified at the suggestion of judge Dana, it was ordered, that a committee be appointed for arranging the seats of the members, and providing suitable seats for the accommodation of his excellency the governor and the members of the council when they should choose to attend the convention. This committee consists of Messrs. Dana and Russell of Boston, Parker of Charlestown, Abbot of Westford, and Hunt of Northampton.

Mr. Webster moved that the chaplains of the two houses of the legislature be requested to officiate alternately as the chaplains to the convention. Before this motion was disposed of, an adjournment was called for, and after agreeing, on motion of Mr. Prince, that the hour of meeting daily should be ten o'clock in the morning until otherwise ordered, the House adjourned.

From the National Intelligencer, November 18.

PUBLIC LANDS.

An interesting document was yesterday transmitted by the secretary of the treasury to the Senate, in pursuance of a resolution of that House at the last session, containing a body of information on the subject of the lands of the United States purchased from the Indians; the quantity sold; for how much sold, &c. &c. The sums which have been paid and remain to be paid, under treaties made with the Indian tribes, to indemnify them for cessions of land to he United States, is 2,542,916 dollars. The expense of surveying the public lands, from 4th March, 1789, to 31st December, 1819, has been 4,243,632 dollars. The whole quantity of land which has been sold by the United States, as well before as since the opening of the land offices, up to 30th Sept. 1819, is 20,138,482 acres; and the amount for which it has been sold is 45,098,696 dollars. Of this amount, 22,229,180 dollars had been paid, and 22,000,657 *remained to be paid*, at the close of Sept. 1819. The quantity of lands surveyed in the several land office districts is 72,805,092 acres, whereof 18,601,930 acres have been sold, leaving 54,203,162 acres unsold. The quantity surveyed for military bounty lands, is 12,315,360 acres. The whole quantity of land purchased from the Indians by the various treaties and cessions is estimated at 191,978,536 acres!

Let these sums and quantities be read aloud, and the reader will be startled at their sonorous magnitude.

HAYTI.

By the politeness of a commercial friend, the editors of the *American Sentinel* have been fa-

voured with a proclamation of president Boyer, and with several letters from Port-au-Prince, by which it appears that the president has succeeded in obtaining possession of a number of the most important posts in the kingdom of Hayti, without a struggle; and that although some of Christophe's officers had not yet sent in their adhesion to the republican chief, a serious opposition to him was not anticipated.

Extract of a Letter dated Port-au-Prince, Oct. 21, 1820.

"The army in the north is going on well; they are now at the Cape, of course all is now for the republic. The daily news of the taking of forts and towns, causes illuminations every night in our city."

Extract of another Letter, same date.

"I presume you have already learnt, that all the north belongs to us, that is to say, to the government of the republic of Hayti. Christophe blew out his brains with two pistol bullets, and all the royal family are in irons."

Translated for the American Sentinel.

REPUBLIC OF HAYTI.

ORDER OF THE DAY.

John Peter Boyer, President of Hayti.

The tyrant is no more, he has done himself justice.

Christophe, whose usurped authority covered with mourning and wretchedness the northern and western parts which obeyed him, terminated his days on Sunday last, the 8th inst. at half past seven o'clock in the evening, by a pistol shot, at the news of the defection of what he called his military household: which, instead of opposing, as he wished, general Richard and the troops of the garrison of the Cape, who on the 6th had declared against his despotism embraced them and swore, on reuniting to the republic, henceforward to live united, and as a nation of brothers and friends.

The president of Hayti hastens to express his satisfaction, in the name of the country, to all the inhabitants, who, under these circumstances, have profitably served the cause of liberty and equality, and to assure them that nothing shall be spared to meliorate their condition; the military who have delayed to yield their submission, should present themselves without fear. The republic is merciful, because she is strong: she has only children to reconcile, and not enemies to combat; the latter, alone, who shall dare to resist the wish of the people, by acting from private views, shall be delivered to the sword of the law.

The generals, superior officers, and the military of all grades should use their efforts to maintain good order every where. It is forbidden to shed the blood of any person; he who shall permit it, shall be considered as an assassin.

The president of Hayti is about to traverse the whole northern part with an imposing force; not to conquer, but to conciliate and pacify. The people wish to be free: they shall be so; the constitution, alone, can secure to them this precious advantage, because the constitution of the republic is the work of its representatives.

Given at the national palace of Saint Mark, the 17th of October, 1820, 17th year of independence.

BOYER.

By the president.

B. INGINAC, *Secretary General.*

SPANISH JOURNALS.

Before the late revolution in Spain, there existed but one gazette at Madrid, called the Official Gazette, and some other periodical prints devoted to advertisements and ecclesiastical matters. In July last, the following publications flourished in that capital.

1. The Madrid Gazette. 2. The Gazette of the Government. 3. The Miscellany (daily), independent and constitutional. 4. The Constitutional, more devoted to the Ministry. 5. The Law, specially dedicated to the defence of the Constitution. 6. The Publicist, of the most liberal cast. 7. The Political and Literary Courier; its title bespeaks its character. 8. The Bee Hive, liberally political. 9. The Spanish Minerva, after the model of the French Minerve. 10. The National Minerva. 11. The Palladium, or Journal of the Patriotic Societies. 12. The Zealous Citizen, ardent for reform. 13. The Aurora, the principal record of the proceedings of the Patriotic Societies, violent and personal. 14. The Conservator, moderate and constitutional. 15. The Vigilant, designed to assail whatever menaces the new order of things. 16. The Sun, the repository of the public ordinances, which it analyses and explains. 17. The Chronicle of the Arts. 18. The Universal Observer, explains the text and principles of the constitution in great detail, temperate and impartial. 19. The Messenger. 20. Annals of Agriculture, Arts, and Commerce. 21. Correspondence between Two Friends of Liberty, occupied with deep speculation. 22. The Letters of a Poor Little Idler; full of poignant and ingenious sarcasm, and levelled at all vulgar errors. 23. The Brother Idler, like the preceeding. 24. The Periodico-Mania, attacks all the other journals. 25. The Contra-Periodico-Mania, adversary of the preceding. 26. The Diplomatic Harlequin.

Besides all these periodical works, a great number of sheets of controversy on various subjects appear daily, and the press teems with sermons, discourses, and commentaries on the constitution. The capitals of the provinces have all their political and commercial journals. Let this state of things continue for some time, and there will be no danger of a relapse for the Spanish people. [*Nat. Gaz.*

From the Nashville Gazette, October 31.

CHOCTAW TREATY.

Extract of a Letter from a Gentleman at the Choctaw Treaty ground, to his Friend in this place, dated 19th Oct. 1820.

"The commissioners have concluded a treaty with the Choctaw nation, by which the United States acquire about *six million* acres of land within the chartered limits of the state of Mississippi, for a corresponding quantity beyond the Mississippi river."

Missouri.—On the 13th Nov. the New York House of Assembly passed the following resolutions by a vote of 117 to 4.

"Whereas the legislature of this state at the last session, did instruct their senators, and request their representatives in Congress to oppose the admission as a state, into the union, any territory not comprised within the original boundaries of the United States, without making the prohibition of slavery therein an indispensable condition of admission: And whereas this legislature is impressed with the correctness of the sentiments so communicated to our senators and representatives, therefore,

Resolved, (if the honourable the Senate concur therein) that this legislature does approve of the principles contained in the resolutions of the last session; and further, if the provisions contained in any proposed constitution of a new state, deny to any citizens of the existing states the privileges and immunities of the citizens of such new state, that such proposed constitution should not be accepted or confirmed; the same, in the opinion of this legislature, being void by the constitution of the United States: and that our senators be instructed, and our representatives in Congress be requested to use their utmost exertions to prevent the acceptance of any such constitution."

The resolutions were unanimously agreed to in the Senate.

Mr. Harrison Hall will shortly publish at the Port Folio Office, "A Law Glossary of the Latin, Greek, Norman, French, and other Languages, interspersed in the Commentaries by Sir William Blackstone, and various Law Treatises upon each branch of the profession; translated into English, and alphabetically arranged. To which will be added, translations of the quotations in the principal American Reporters."

Agriculture.

A Discourse read before the Essex Agricultural Society, in Massachusetts, February 21, 1820; *suggesting some improvements in the agriculture of the county. By Timothy Pickering, president of the society.*

(Continued from p. 335.)

Mr. Young mentions a lecture he had read to the Board of Agriculture, "on the means by which a farm can be made, by a right proportion of all the products, to support itself, without foreign assistance, in a state of high fertility; a question depending on the quantity or weight of dung resulting from the consumption in litter of a given weight of straw." This lecture I have not seen. But he considers the question as successfully decided, in Mr. Arbuthnot's practice, in the following manner: 134 sheep and 30 lambs were turnip fed, in a pen on a headland, well littered with straw: in six weeks they required nearly six tons of straw (to give them clean and comfortable beds:) and in that time made 40 tons of dung, equal to that brought from London (stable dung it is to be presumed). So every ton of litter produced near seven tons of dung. But this weight must have been obtained chiefly by the earth of the headland absorbing the urine, of which, when fed on turnips, sheep make great quantities, and being finally mixed with their dung and litter. This recital reminds me of the recommendation, in my address to this society in May, 1818, to carry earth into the barn yard, once in every two weeks, from spring to autumn; adding to every layer of earth a coat of litter. I should then have advised a plentiful spreading of litter, had I not known that our courses of husbandry in Essex yielded very little straw.

In the same communication to the society, I presented my ideas on the proper application of manure; to wit, *always to bury it up quickly, when carried to the field*, to prevent great loss by its exposure to the sun and air; remarking, that the essence of manure was lost, not by *sinking* into the earth below the roots of cultivated plants, but by *rising* into the atmosphere, and so fleeing away. Here, also, I have the satisfaction of seeing the theory I had formed nineteen years ago (in the manner suggested in that communication) supported by the opinions and practices of such eminent agriculturists as Messrs. Arbuthnot and Ducket. After noticing Arbuthnot's cultivation of madder, an article requiring a rich soil and extremely deep tillage, Mr. Young says—"there was one circumstance in his management, which, being applicable to more important articles, merits a more durable attention; this is, the depth to which he ploughed in the dung: his tillage went to that of eighteen inches; and he conceived there was no danger of losing, by this circumstance, either *vegetable* or *animal* manures, as *their* tendency, contrary to all *fossil* ones, was not to *sink*, but to *rise* in the atmosphere." Fossil manures are lime, marl, plaister of Paris, and other substances dug out of the earth, which increase the productive powers of soils.

Mr. Ducket's manner of applying dung, although his was a sand farm, was similar to Mr. Arbuthnot's. "Immediately connected with the depth of tillage, is that to which dung may be safely deposited. He (Mr. Ducket) had not the least apprehension of losing it by deep ploughing; but freely turned it down to two or three times the depth common among his neighbours." Yet Mr. Young says, that farmers (and good farmers too) persist in a contrary

practice. But he adds—"Enlightened individuals, thinly scattered, know better; having convinced themselves that Mr. Ducket's practice is not only safe but beneficial; and then names one who "ploughs in his dung as deeply as his ploughs can go, turning it in nine inches, and would bury it twelve, did he stir to such a depth."

Confirmatory of the correctness of the practice of these two celebrated English farmers, is the fact stated by sir John Sinclair, president of the British Board of Agriculture, in his account of the improved Scottish husbandry. He mentions one farmer who ridged his carrot ground, and buried the manure sixteen or seventeen inches deep, the ridges thirty inches wide. This farmer preferred, as a manure, a well prepared compost of peat moss* and dung, ten tons, or double cartloads, per English acre. "The dung (or compost) being at the bottom, makes the top root of the carrot push immediately down, and swell to an enormous size; the roots being often sixteen inches in girt, and 18 or 20 inches in length."

To return to Mr. Ducket. His deep ploughing (says Mr. Young) was not practised above once in two or three years, and the successive tillage shallow. "By such deep ploughing, seldom given, Mr. Ducket conceived that a due degree of moisture was preserved in his *light* land, by means of which his crops were flourishing in seasons of drought which destroyed those of his neighbours: and no one could more severely condemn the ideas which governed the Norfolk farmers, in leaving what they called their *pan* unbroken at the depth only of four or five inches. The operation of ploughing he thought could scarcely be given too seldom, provided when given it was done effectively: and he always carried this paucity of tillage as far as circumstances would permit: thus I have known him put in seven crops with only four ploughings." In another part of his lecture, Mr. Young says: "If I were to name the circumstance which more than any other governed his (Mr. Ducket's) practice, I should say that the whole was founded in trench ploughing; and that the principle which governed this practice (a principle thoroughly impressed upon his mind as well as on the minds of those who draw intelligent conclusions) was that of giving as little tillage as possible to sandy soils."

"The next circumstance which I shall advert to (says Mr. Young) in the husbandry of Mr. Ducket, is the use of *long, fresh dung*, instead of that which in common management is turned and mixed till it becomes *rotten:* and in justice to his memory, I shall read the short recital of his practice, as I printed it three-and-twenty years ago. "Dependent on the Trench-Plough,* is Mr. Ducket's system of dunging. He conceives, and I apprehend very justly, that the more dunghills are stirred and turned over, and rotted, the more of their virtue is lost. It is not a question of straw merely wetted; but good *long* dung he esteems more than that quantity of *short* dung, which time will convert the former to. *Two* loads of *long* may become *one* of *short;* but the two are much more valuable than the one. Without the Trenching-Plough, however, his opinion would be different. If long dung is ploughed in, in the common manner, with lumps and bundles sticking out at many places along every furrow, which lets the sun and air into the rest that seems covered, he thinks, so used, it is mostly lost, or given to the winds: in such a case, short rotted manure will be better covered, and should be preferred. But with his plough nothing of this happens; and it enables him to use his dung in such a state as gives him a large quantity instead of a small one. The good sense of these observations must be obvious at the first blush." Mr. Young adds: "*The use of* FRESH *instead of* ROTTEN *dung, is, in my opinion, one of the greatest agricultural discoveries that has been made in the present age.*" He then states a striking experiment made by himself—67 small cart-loads of fresh yard dung produced two successive crops of potatoes, yielding together 742 bushels; at the same time, the same quantity of yard dung, after six months rotting, yielded 708 bushels, leaving (to the fresh long dung) a superiority of 34 bushels. But had the fresh dung been kept as long as the other, it would have required at least twice, perhaps thrice as much, to have produced the quantity used." (That is, twice or three times 67 loads of fresh long dung, if kept and often

* In Scotland, their peat lands are called peat mosses.

* The Trench-Plough of Mr. Ducket's invention was so admirably contrived as completely to bury whatever was intended to be turned in. Mr. Young says he saw him turn down a crop of rye, six feet high, so that not an atom was left visible; and yet the depth did not exceed eight inches. Trench-ploughing has sometimes been effected in this country by a second plough following in the same furrow after the first, and going a few inches deeper.

turned and mixed to produce fermentation and rotting, would have shrunk, or been reduced, to 67 loads of short rotten dung." "If the crops therefore had been only equal, still the advantage (of the fresh dung) would have been most decisive."

"I shall not quit (says Mr. Young) the husbandry of two men who carried tillage, on soils so extremely different, to its utmost perfection, without remarking the circumstances in which they agreed. Both were equal friends to deep ploughing; both rejected the common repetition of tillage, and reduced the number of their operations to a degree that merits attention; both rejected fallows; and both ploughed deeply for depositing manure, without any apprehension of losing it. These are very important points in practical agriculture."

To this account of the successful practices of these two celebrated English farmers, it may be useful to subjoin a few observations I have thought it proper so far to present them in detail, in order to develop principles; not expecting a *precise* adoption of their practices; which, indeed, without their or similar superiour ploughs and other implements, would be impracticable: but with such instruments as we possess, or may easily obtain, we can materially increase the depth of our ploughing, and I hope contrive effectually to cover our manure. *This should be wholly applied to tillage crops;* for which the manuring should be so ample as to insure a succession of good crops through the whole rotation, without the aid of any additional manure, especially for wheat, rye, barley, or oats: for besides increasing the seeds of weeds (with which all our lands are too much infested) such additional manuring, immediately applied to the small grain crops, renders them more liable to injury from mildews. Of this I am fully satisfied, as well from numerous statements of facts which I have seen in books of husbandry, as from the circumstances under which remarkable mildews have otherwise been noticed. One of our countrymen, who wrote a short essay on the subject prior to the American revolution, has given the only solution of the causes of mildews that has ever appeared satisfactory to me: perhaps at some future time I may find leisure to show the correspondence of facts with his principles.*

(*To be continued.*)

* This essay, subscribed "A New England Man," is published in the second volume of the Memoirs of the Philadelphia Society of Agriculture.

Lieutenant general Dejean, director general of military supplies in France, has published an essay, entitled "Description of a new and tried method of preserving grain of every description for an indefinite period." The method consists in depositing the grain in large leaden recipients of a cylindrical form, and hermetically sealed after the grain is inclosed. In this state, without communication with the external air, it is preserved fresh and sound for any length of time; and in countries subject to famine, the expedient would be of vast importance. [*Nat. Gaz.*

Miscellany.

ON THE NEGRO EMPIRE OF HAYTI.

Politicians, who love to contemplate events on a great scale, have within these few years seen a succession to their hearts' desire. They have witnessed the fall of ancient monarchies, and the establishment of new: they have beheld those new ones fail, and have contemplated the consequences, so far as they are hitherto developed. But there remains one of these novelties, more striking than any of the rest, from the circumstances which attend it; and this, to the eye of the sagacious, offers results, perhaps not very proximate —perhaps, too, not very distant—in which a larger portion of mankind is concerned, than the generality of those who pass for well informed allow themselves to believe.

It is no more than natural, that Europeans should feel the most lively interest in events of which Europe has been the theatre; and the British isles, by their adjacency to the principal seat of revolutionary ferocity, have been occupied most intensely with the scenes passing immediately around them. The consequences left by those scenes shrink into diminished proportion when compared with what the intelligent are inclined to predict as probable, from the new condition in which a part of our species heretofore considered as property—absolute property—now find themselves. The negro kingdom of Hayti is one of those extraordinary incidents in the history of mankind to which attention will be drawn, sooner or later, if not by its peculiarity, yet by its importance. It took its birth amidst the most horrid of political convulsions; jealousy and revenge were its parents; fire and massacre were its sponsors; devastation and ruin were its guardians, and its tutors were barbarous chiefs, rendered still more barbarous by the keen

sense of treason and treachery practised against them, from which they barely escaped; and of oppression, the wounds of which they still retained, not skin deep, but deep in their flesh. In its earliest infancy this singular community resisted with complete effect the most mighty efforts of its mother country, imperial France. Bonaparte sent thither, under his brother-in-law, and one of his ablest generals, general Le Clerc, a force of 35,000 men; and to this he added reinforcements exceeding 20,000. They perished. More than 25,000 preceded general Le Clerc to the grave; and the whole number that fell victims to the attempt against Hayti, in the short space of thirty-four months, amounted to 62,500.

It is not to the military skill alone of this negro population, that this effectual defeat of a powerful and inveterate adversary should be attributed; the nature of the climate, with the inevitable severities of the service, induced diseases, rapidly extended them throughout the army, and rendered them peculiarly fatal. We have now, therefore, to contemplate this race of blacks as left to themselves, and no longer compressed by apprehension, or swayed by the alternations of hope and fear. What is their policy, when thus at liberty? This is a question for the meditation of statesmen. What is their literature?—and what character is it most likely to present? This rather meets our present purpose; and is more susceptible of a definitive answer. And yet, in truth, these questions are more intimately related than the judicious have hitherto inclined to admit; and, because this relation has been overlooked in some late speculations on the subject, we shall here introduce a few words respecting it. Our readers know that St. Domingo, the former name of the island of Hayti, was divided, as property, between the French and the Spaniards; and that the French part of the island is that which has destroyed, or expelled, its former masters, and assumed independence as a state. That portion of it to which we immediately refer has already seen three chiefs, of whom two have caused themselves to be crowned as kings, (or emperors,) have exercised the power and prerogatives of royalty, and have enacted laws and originated constitutions, with all the forms and phrases of unquestioned and unquestionable monarchs. The first king was Dessalines, who was crowned emperor, October 8, 1804, under the name of Jacques I. He was killed on the 17th of October, 1806. The second emperor is the now reigning sovereign, who was crowned June 2, 1811, under the name of Henry I. The character and policy of this chief deserves attention.

We are not about to estimate his military character; nor, properly speaking, that of his internal government: it is enough for us to recal to mind, that he was originally a French slave; that French was the language spoken by his masters, and by the population of which he is now the head; in short, French was his mother tongue. Yet does this negro emperor prefer the language, the dress, the manners, the appearance, and the institutions of the English. When commander of Cape Francois, under Toussaint L'Overture, the first of the three chiefs, he gave public dinners, to which the British officers within distance were invited; and his conversation was always in English, which he speaks with considerable fluency. His dress, when he dresses to please himself, is the Windsor uniform. He is ambitious to commit the conduct of his public institutions to Englishmen. Dr. Stuart has the care of his military hospital; he has established parochial schools for the instruction of children, on the principles of Bell and Lancaster; and these are superintended by Englishmen. In these the English language is taught; and the scholars read and write, and perform their exercises in this language. In short, this language receives every encouragement in the power of the king, that is calculated to render it popular. The children of the public functionaries are *expected* to be well versed in English; and the influence of fashion, as adopted among the higher ranks, is, even on the mind of a negro, incalculable and indelible. If any ask, what has this to do with policy? it might be asked in reply—Whether the blue mountains of Jamaica are not visible from Hayti; and what is the language of the black population on that island? Moreover, what language is likely to be spoken among their descendants, all of whom *must* be born on the island, no fresh importations, by which the dialects of Africa might be refreshed or renewed, being permitted. A more extended inquiry would ask, also, what is the language of the black population in America? of that numerous body of oppressed individuals which has not now to learn its own preponderance in point of numbers in Virginia, Georgia, the Carolinas, &c.? The various African dialects of these slaves are so numerous and so heterogeneous, that the most accomplished emissary could never make himself intelligible to all who speak them; but let him

address them in a language they all understand—they all *must* understand—and preface his elocution by the words "LIBERTY and EQUALITY," the consequences cannot possibly be doubtful. [*New Month. Mag.*

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*Account of the new Discovery of a Southern or Antarctic Continent.**

An opinion of the existence of an antarctic continent has prevailed ever since the discovery of America rendered us more intimately acquainted with the figure of the earth; nor, when all the circumstances that led to it are considered, can it be called an unreasonable opinion. The vast quantity of floating ice in the higher southern latitudes justly indicated its origin to be in fresh water rivers and lakes at no great distance. And again, the immense space of ocean, in the southern hemisphere, in the absence of such a continent, led to an inference that that beautiful arrangement and disposition of land and water, so conspicuous in the northern, was overlooked, and the equilibrium neglected in the southern hemisphere.

These considerations led many voyagers to search after this *terra incognita*, and particularly influenced the last voyage of captain Cook. But is it not surprising that it should have escaped the observation of the circumnavigators of all nations, and have baffled the laborious perseverance of Cook himself? and that the numerous vessels (whalers and others) that have navigated the sea contiguous to such land for nearly two centuries, should have remained in ignorance of its existence? Yet such is the fact; and it is equally surprising, that the honour of its discovery should have been reserved for the master of a small trading vessel, nearly fifty years after the question seemed to be set at rest by the unsuccessful result of captain Cook's navigation.

Captain Cook first explored the Southern ocean between the meridian of the Cape of Good Hope and New Zealand; consequently far to the east of the land now discovered. In November, 1773, he left New Zealand, and employed several weeks between 180° and 90° west longitude, and 45° to about 72° south latitude; so that he never approached within 30° (on the antarctic circle) of the new continent. The only passages we think it necessary to quote from him, as illustrative of our present subject, are the following:

"In lat. 67° 20′, long. 137° 12′," he says, "while we were taking up ice, we got two of the antarctic peterels so often mentioned, by which our conjectures were confirmed of their being of the peterel tribe. They are about the size of a large pigeon; the feathers of the head, back, and part of the upper side of the wings, are of a light brown; the belly, and under side of the wings, white; the tail feathers are also white, but tipped with brown: at the same time, we got another new peterel, smaller than the former, and all of a dark gray plumage. We remarked that these birds were fuller of feathers than any we had hitherto seen; such care has nature taken to clothe them suitably to the climate in which they live. At the same time we saw a few chocolate coloured albatrosses; these, as well as the peterels abovementioned, we nowhere saw but among the ice; hence one may with reason conjecture that there is land to the south. If not, I must ask where these birds breed? A question which perhaps will never be determined; for hitherto we have found these lands, if any, quite inaccessible. Besides these birds, we saw a very large seal, which kept playing about us some time. One of our people who had been at Greenland, called it a sea-horse; but every one else took it for what I have said."

Again, in lat. 65° 42′, long. 99° 44′: "I now came to the resolution to proceed to the north, and to spend the ensuing winter within the tropic, if I met with no employment before I came there. I was now well satisfied no continent was to be found in this ocean, but what must lie so far to the south as to be wholly inaccessible on account of ice; and that if one should be found in the Southern Atlantic ocean, it would be necessary to have the whole summer before us to explore it. On the other hand, upon a supposition that there is no land there, we undoubtedly might have reached the Cape of Good Hope by April, and so have put an end to the expedition, so far as it related to the finding a continent; which indeed was the first object of the voyage. But for me at this time to have quitted the Southern Pacific ocean, with a good ship expressly sent out on discoveries, a healthy crew, and not in want either of stores or of provisions, would have been betraying not only a want of perseverance but of judgment, in supposing the South Pacific ocean to have been so well explored, that nothing remained to be done in it.—This, however, was not my opinion; for though I had proved that there was no con-

* From the Literary Gazette.

tinent but what must lie far to the south, there remained nevertheless room for very large islands in places wholly unexamined: and many of those which were formerly discovered, are but imperfectly explored, and their situations as imperfectly known. I was besides of opinion, that my remaining in this sea some time longer, would be productive of improvements in navigation and geography, as well as in other sciences."

In the absence of a more detailed narrative of the important discovery (now made of the actual existence of a southern continent) which we presume is retarded for obvious reasons, resulting from the impolicy of making premature disclosures, the following few particulars may not only gratify curiosity, but will, in a great measure, we trust, counteract the ill effects of garbled and incorrect statements which are beginning to find their way into the periodical press.

One of the evils attending mistatements, in the origin of an important discovery, is that of involving the question in a labyrinth of contradictions, from which in after times it is difficult to unravel the truth. In the present instance too, as in former cases, a meritorious and enterprising though obscure individual is in danger of being deprived of the credit he so justly deserves, by probably adding to his native country a new source of wealth; the full worth of which would only be truly known by its possession by a rival in commercial enterprise.

A Mr. Smith, master of the William, of Blythe, in Northumberland, and trading between the Rio Plata and Chili, in endeavouring to facilitate his passage round Cape Horn, last year, ran to a higher latitude than is usual in such voyages, and in lat. 62° 30′ and 60° west longitude, discovered land. As circumstances would not admit of a close examination, he deferred it until his return to Buenos Ayres, when he made such further observations as convinced him of the importance of his discovery. On making it known at Buenos Ayres, speculation was set on the alert, and the Americans at that place became very anxious to obtain every information necessary to their availing themselves of a discovery which they saw was pregnant with vast benefit to a commercial people. Captain Smith was however too much of an Englishman to assist their speculations, by affording them that knowledge of his secret which it was so necessary for them to possess; and was determined that his native country only should enjoy the advantages of his discovery; and on his return voyage to Valparaiso, in February last, he devoted as much time to the development of it as was consistent with his primary object, a safe and successful voyage.

He ran in a westward direction along the coasts, either of a continent or numerous islands, for two or three hundred miles, forming large bays, and abounding with the spermaceti whale, seals, &c. He took numerous soundings and bearings, draughts, and charts of the coast; and, in short, did every thing that the most experienced navigator, despatched purposely for the object of making a survey, could do. He even landed, and in the usual manner took possession of the country for his sovereign, and named his acquisition "New South Shetland." The climate was temperate, the coast mountainous, apparently uninhabited, but not destitute of vegetation, as firs and pines were observable in many places; in short, the country had upon the whole the appearance of the coast of Norway. After having satisfied himself with every particular that time and circumstances permitted him to examine, he bore away to the north and pursued his voyage.

On his arrival at Valparaiso he communicated his discovery to captain Sherriff of his majesty's ship Andromache, who happened to be there. Captain S. immediately felt the importance of the communication, and lost not a moment in making every arrangement for following it up: he immediately despatched the William, with officers from the Andromache: and in this stage the last letter from Chili left the expedition, with the most sanguine expectation of success, and ultimate advantages resulting from it: and if we are correctly informed, a fully detailed narrative has been forwarded to government.

On taking a cursory view of the charts of the Southern Atlantic and Pacific oceans, it will be seen, that though captain Cook penetrated to a much higher latitude, and consequently drew his conclusion from observing nothing but vast mountains of ice, it will be seen also that his meridian was 45 degrees further to the west of New South Shetland, leaving a vast space unexplored on the parallel of 62° between that and Sandwich land, in longitude about 28° west. He again made 67° or thereabouts, but in longitude 137° to 147° west. Perouse ascended no higher than 60° 30′; Vancouver about 55°; other navigators passing the Straits of Magellan and Le Maire; and most of them passing as close to Cape Horn as possible, in order, as they thought, to

shorten the passage to the Pacific, are circumstances that reasonably account for the protracted period to which so important a discovery has been delayed.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

Messrs. Editors,

I here present you with a short notice of some of the most interesting objects of antiquity, principally compiled from competent authorities. Should it meet your approbation, you can offer it to your readers.

M.

ANTIQUITIES.

Antiquity, as a science, leads us to an investigation of the nature and intention of those remaining objects, which owe their origin to the labour and ingenuity of ancient nations. As it offers to our reflections all those productions of human industry, which have through numerous ages withstood the corroding hand of time, it will ever be a study highly interesting to the curious.

The most important subjects which are calculated to amuse the antiquarian, and which serve as the visible testimonials of the civilization and improvement of former people, may be enumerated the remains of edifices, monuments, inscriptions, archives, implements of husbandry, coins, medals and sepulchres.

Lord Bacon represents antiquities as the wrecks or fragments of history. By investigating their intention and use, our attention is naturally directed towards those people with whom they originated; and consequently the study of antiquities is calculated to stimulate the mind to other historical inquiries.

But, instead of expatiating largely on the nature of this subject, it may be more interesting to the reader, to be presented with some of the principal curiosities of the ancient art of mankind.

The continent of Asia presents innumerable traces and vestiges of former civilization, and the relics of ancient opulence and splendour. Amongst the ruins of many cities, those of Balbec and Palmyra seem best calculated to reward the researches of antiquarians. The rectangular temples of those cities are very extraordinary in point of extent, and the superb style of decoration. The immense size of the materials in the temple at Balbec, is, perhaps, greater than any employed in Egypt. In the quarry without the walls of the city, lies a stone 70 feet in length, and 14 feet square, wrought in shape of a parallelopipedon or six-sided figure, containing 14,128 cubic feet, and weighing upwards of 1000 tons.

The Chinese empire presents a great number of prodigious monuments of human labour, erected in a very distant period of antiquity. The great wall, built more than 2000 years ago, may be considered as the most stupendous production of ancient industry remaining on earth. The length of this wall is 1500 miles; its height about 25 feet, and its thickness 15 feet. It is carried over mountains 5000 feet high, and is supported over several large rivers by arches. A tower or bastion is situated on the top of the wall every hundred yards. It was built in order to secure China from the hostile incursions of the Tartars.

Amongst the numerous works of antiquity found in the Asiatic countries, the excavated temple at Elephanta in Hindostan, deserves to be noticed. This cave is sculptured out of a solid rock, and is 120 feet square; it contains four rows of massy pillars, resembling fluted balustrade, resting on a long rectangular plinth; the whole pillar is surrounded by a broad projecting capital, in form of a flat vase, richly and highly decorated. Colossal statues and busts protrude from the side of the cavern, bearing sceptres, trophies, and symbols of their mythology. Columns, of an octagonal shape, are sometimes mounted on the backs of elephants, horses and tigers, supporting a cornice decorated with human figures sitting cross-legged. A gallery extends from pillar to pillar, profusely sculptured with men in acts of devotion to serpents, tigers, and other animals.

The base of the column, bearing an elephant, sometimes displays a man astride his trunk, which give the general mass the appearance of being put in motion by these mighty animals.

The whole may be considered as original, and peculiar to the habits of an uncivilized people, intuitively representing natural objects of their religious devotion in crude, disproportioned sculpture.

Persia abounds with objects of antiquity; the principal of which may be reckoned the ruins of Persepolis. This magnificent palace originally consisted of 205 columns, 70 feet high.

The arrangement, construction and proportions of Persepolis, differ very materially from the Indian or Egyptian style of building; yet we find the Egyptian doors at its entrance, and the Indian sculptured excavations in the tomb of Darius.

The ancient Egyptians have left to the admiration of posterity, 5 palaces and 34 temples, as monuments of their science and industry upwards of 3000 years ago. Their pyramids may be considered as the most stupendous works of human labour.

There are several pyramids in Egypt, but those of Giza are the most gigantic: and the most enormous, or the great pyramid, is situated near Memphis. Herodotus says he was informed that the latter covered the remains of Cheops, and another adjoining, those of his brother Cephrenes, who succeeded him: the first only having inward galleries, or passages.

Although much dependence cannot be placed upon the accounts of this ancient writer, it seems highly probable that one hundred thousand men may have been constantly employed twenty years in erecting the immense pile.

The form of this lofty monument prevents an accurate measurement of its dimensions, without severe labour and imminent danger; consequently, those authors who gave them might have judged from mere conjecture.

Herodotus mentions its reputed height in his time to have been 800 feet, and the width of each side at the base the same. Strabo made it 652 feet; but Diodorus reduces it to 600: modern observers have agreed with Strabo. One cause of the difference between the assumed heights, is, that the pyramid is measured or observed on different sides; the northeast angle is most frequently ascended, being the least damaged, but this part is exposed to the desert of Lybia, whence vast quantities of sand are driven by the wind against it, and the number of visible gradations are diminished by its accumulation; it is, therefore, evident, that the admeasurements should be made at the opposite angle, where it is probable that the rise of the earth is less considerable: and yet to arrive at any degree of accuracy, that should be ascertained by digging.

Strabo mentions, that the stone which closed the entrance to the apartments within the pyramid, was situated nearly half way up one of the sides. Were this the fact, a very great rise in the neighbouring earth must have occurred, as it now appears to be not more than 100 feet from the base.

In turning our attention to the antiquities of Europe, we find that the most interesting remains of ancient labour are of Grecian origin. Amongst the numerous relics of art may be noticed the Parthenon at Athens.

This magnificent temple is situated on the summit of the rock of the citadel, within the Acropolis, which appears as if nature had formed it as a pedestal for the express purpose of supporting it upon its crown. Its extreme length is 225 feet, and breadth 100 feet, surrounded by 46 columns, supporting an entablature of 12 feet in height. It exhibits a great variety of figures emblematical of the Grecian mythology.

The blocks of stone with which the columns are formed, are six feet in diameter, and so nicely and accurately wrought, that the most strict scrutiny is required to discover the joints, being no thicker than the finest hair.

Chateaubriand, seated on a fragment at the summit of the Acropolis, describes the ruins of the Parthenon with all the enthusiasm of a poet and an artist: "From the summit of the Acropolis, I beheld the sun rise between the two peaks of Mount Hymettus.

"The crows, which built their nests around the citadel, but never soar to its summit, hovered below us; their black and polished wings were tinged with the roseate hues by the first radiant beams of Aurora. Columns of light blue smoke ascended in the shade along the side of the Hymettus.

"Athens, the Acropolis, and the ruins of the Parthenon, were coloured with the most beautiful tints of peach blossom. The sculptures of Phidias, struck horizontal by a ray of gold, started into life, and seemed to move upon the marble, from the mobility of the shadows of relief."

Adjacent to the Parthenon stands the temple of Neptune, and Minerva Polias, the temples of Thesus, Prophylea, and Jupiter Olympus, which latter was composed of 128 columns, 60 feet in height: the distance round this temple is said to be half a mile. The walls of the city of Athens extended over a space of nine leagues, and were broad enough to admit two chariots to run abreast.

In Italy the traveller meets with numberless objects of antiquity, which furnish sufficient proofs of the correctness of our historical details of the ancient splendour and magnificence of the Roman commonwealth. Rome itself may be considered as a city of antiquities. The works of the Romans were much more numerous than those of any other people. The remains

of their palaces, theatres, amphitheatres, baths, mausoleums, and other works, excite at this day the admiration and astonishment of every judicious beholder.

The plans of their buildings were more varied than those of the Greeks, who, excepting but in a few instances of small but beautiful specimens, erected their principal edifices upon rectangular plans.

The Romans constructed circular temples crowned with domes, amphitheatres upon elliptic plans, and their theatres and many other buildings, upon a mixed-lined plan. By this variety they formed a style that was both elegant and magnificent.

In the cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum, which were overwhelmed by the volcanic eruption of Mount Vesuvius in the 79th year of the Christian era, an almost endless variety of objects are found to gratify the researches of the curious. In those subterraneous mansions, once the abodes of human life; enjoying the clear light of heaven, but now the gloomy caverns of solitude and darkness, the inquisitive traveller, led only by the light of a taper, explores the habitations, and even the household furniture, of those who existed in a high state of civilization nearly two thousand years ago.

Antiquities of Roman origin are often found in Great Britain, and in most of the southern parts of Europe. In Spain, the works of the Romans are very conspicuous. The aqueduct at Segovia is a noble edifice, consisting of 159 arches, extending about 740 yards, and is rather more than 94 feet in height where it crosses the valley. Morviedo, the ancient Saguntum, and Tarragona, the ancient Tarraco, affords many curious remains of antiquity. The theatre is capable of receiving 10,000 people, and is hewn out of a solid rock. The labour of which was less than might at first have been expected, as the Spanish rocks are generally calcareous or of gypsum.

Medals and coins of the ancient civilized nations of Europe, Asia, and Africa, have been found in great varieties. They contribute in no small degree to enrich the cabinets of the curious, and serve as the lasting gazettes of antiquity by giving data to many facts which history has left in obscurity. Medals inform the world that at such a period a monarch ascended a throne, a victory was achieved, the foundation of a city was laid, a temple erected, or some other important event occurred.

Coins of the greatest antiquity were rude and shapeless, and without impressions or devices. The silver coins of Greece, first known as bearing marks, are those with a tortoise on one side, and indented on the other: it is extremely doubtful when these coins were made, but they are supposed to have been from the celebrated mint of Ægina, where, according to some writers, the coinage of money took place by command of Phidon, king of the Argives. But succeeding coins of different nations, from their style of execution, bear testimony to the improvement of those people with whom they circulated. The ancient coins frequently exhibited on one side, the portrait or bust of some king or emperor. In some instances the arms or hands were introduced, as bearing emblems of power. The devices on the other side were extremely various.

As medals and coins present an infinite variety of objects, they consequently afford a proportionate degree of pleasure in the study of them. Indeed there is scarcely any peculiarity in the manners, dress, or religion of the ancients, which they do not illustrate and explain.

In the two continents of America, the relics of ancient labour, peculiar only to a people somewhat advanced in arts and civilization, are not unfrequently discovered. But they appear of a less interesting nature than those of some other countries. In America, the antiquarian explores but a barren field; or at least one which is unproductive in the objects of his research. As history gives us no account of the people to whom the American antiquities owe their origin, he can only reflect on them with conjecture. To attempt an illustration of them would be like travelling in the dark without a guide.

IMPROVEMENT OF PHILADELPHIA.

Friends and Fellow Citizens:

The frequent recurrence of yellow or malignant fever in our city, calls on us to adopt some plan to remedy the evil; while the well known fact, that the disease always commences in the neighbourhood of the wharves, teaches us to believe that a remedy can be obtained, only by making a thorough alteration of the east front of the city.

Having transacted business in Water street nearly forty years, I have frequently reflected on what would be the best means to prevent the dissemination of a disease that has proved so destructive of the lives happiness, and wealth of our citizens. I now offer, with due defference to public

opinion, a plan that I think would correct the evil, and for the execution of which, the present time is certainly the most propitious, as real estate, labour, and materials are as low, or lower than they have been for many years, and money is easily obtained. In submitting this plan to your judgment, I am aware that the undertaking is of great magnitude, but by no means so difficult as many may imagine, which the information I have collected and now lay before you, will clearly show.

The advantages to be derived from it, are almost incalculable. It would make our city as healthy as any in the world; it would give employment to a great number of mechanics and labourers; it would put into circulation a large sum of money, and principally among that portion of our citizens who are the most in need of succour; it would remove many dram shops and other immoral nuisances; it would materially lessen the risk from fire; and in fine, it would make Philadelphia the handsomest of cities.

Having thus stated some of the advantages, it remains for me to show what would be the probable cost of the undertaking; say for the purchase of all private property between Vine and Spruce streets, including the east side of Front street to the river Delaware; the assessment of which property, for the year 1820, is as follows, viz:

Upper Delaware Ward,*		$192,765
Lower do	do.	224,970
High Street	do.	415,700
Chesnut	do.	287,043
Walnut	do.	297,362
Dock	do.	275,800
		1,693,640

I shall not be far from the truth in saying, (after seeing the above assessment) that the whole can be bought for	3,000,000
To which add an estimate of the expense necessary to complete the plan, made by Mr. Strickland, and in which he has made a liberal allowance, ...	651,000
	3,651,000
At 6 per cent. per ann. is	219,060

From this it appears, that the whole cost would be about three millions six hundred and fifty-one thousand dollars, equal to two hundred and nineteen thousand and sixty dollars per annum. Here I beg leave to state, that about fifty gentlemen in Boston subscribed half a million of dollars for the erection of a large wharf, and fifty warehouses on it, and for which they receive a handsome income: must it be said that the city of Philadelphia cannot accomplish a highly important improvement that will cost but about seven times the amount of what was done by a few individuals in a sister city?

The way in which the principal or interest of the debt, if incurred, is to be paid, will be from the sale or rent of the stores to the highest bidder in fee, for the store and ground occupied by it, from the wharfage on vessels and on all packages imported and exported; and from an assessment on the property on the west side of Front street and streets adjacent, for as much as it may be increased in value by the proposed alteration, and which would amount to at least one hundred and fifty thousand dollars; as Front street would certainly become the most valuable situation for business and the most desirable for residence in the city.

There are, according to the plan, 132 stores, 20 by 100 feet, which will be worth about 1,333,333 dolls. 33 cts.

at 6 per cent. per annum, is	$80,000
Wharfage on imports, foreign, say on 534,000 packages, at an average of 8 cents per package, . .	42,720
Wharfage on foreign exports will certainly exceed the above, but put at the same, ...	42,720
Wharfage on domestic imports and exports, say . . .	30,000
Wharfage on vessels estimated at about one half the present rate, . .	25,560
	221,000

From this statement it appears that the revenue would be equal to the expense, allowing for the loan required six per cent. interest; but it is highly probable that money could now be obtained (on the security that the city could give) at five per cent. per annum; in which case there would be an annual surplus of thirty-eight thousand four hundred and fifty dollars, to be appropriated as a sinking fund; to which might be added the sum assessed on property on the west side of Front street, and adjacent thereto.

The estimate of packages is made from the Custom House returns for the years 1807 and 1819, which give the above as an average number for one year, without including steel, bar iron, hides, dye-woods, plaister of Paris, hemp, twine, salt, coals, lead, limes, oranges, cocoanuts, and various other articles that come loose, and which would pay a considerable sum.

Heretofore I have said nothing about the

* Including all property on the east side of Front street, and through to the river Delaware in the six wards.

property of New Market ward, running from Spruce to South street; and although not included in the preceding estimate, it would be necessary for the city to purchase it, as otherwise it would be difficult to collect the proposed wharfage on packages, while such good and convenient wharves could be had free of that charge; but as this ward would require but a trifling alteration, it would, unquestionably, pay the interest of the purchase money.

Should each particular trade take stores adjoining each other, as in other large cities, it will be a great convenience to the merchants; there would be no danger of business going beyond the limits of the city, whatever inducements might be held out, as the difference of porterage would more than pay the wharfage; besides no vessel from a foreign port can discharge above Vine or below South streets, without special permission of the collector.

Having now given my calculations founded on the best information I have been able to obtain, you will on examination be able to determine whether they are founded on good grounds; the difficulty apprehended by many will be done away. No doubt the plan now suggested maybe much improved; it is certainly very desirable that a regular plan for the gradual improvement of the wharves should be early adopted, and when a wharf requires repairing, it should be done in conformity with that plan; the repairs should be done with stone from low water mark, which would contribute to health as well as durability.

I must notice that the city would lose the taxes for one year, while the improvement is going on, say on two squares annually, at an average of about three thousand five hundred dollars per square.

Should the trade of our city increase, which we have every reason to expect, the revenue to the city would increase in the same proportion.

The mode of carrying the plan into execution, should it be deemed worthy of consideration, can be digested by such body as may be appointed to consider the same. All of which is respectfully submitted by the public's humble servant,

Nat. Gaz.] PAUL BECK, jr.

North American Review.—Nos. 26, 27 and 28 of this work, being the first, second and third numbers of the new series, which dates from the commencement of professor Everett's editorial labours, are entirely out of print, and a new edition is in the press.

The favourable reception of the first part of *Mr. Lingard's* History of England, has encouraged the author to prepare a fourth volume, which will be published in October next, and will comprise the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI.

Mr. *Emanuel Howet* is preparing Selections from his Letters, written during a tour through the United States, in the summer and autumn of 1819; illustrative of the character of the native Indians, and of the condition of the emigrants.

By a return presented to the House of Commons, it appears that there are at present no less than 32 persons in the custody of the warden of the Fleet prison for contempts, upon processes issuing out of the courts of chancery and exchequer. The first name of this list is Hannah Barber, who, it appears, was committed to prison on the 30th July, 1789, upon a writ of rebellion, in which it is stated that her rebellion (as it is technically called) consisted in not paying a sum of 456*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.* into the bank, in pursuance to a decree of the court of chancery. From the great length of time for which this unhappy woman has suffered imprisonment, more than 31 years, it is presumed that she was unable to obey the decree. The other prisoners have remained in custody for various lengths of time; one 21 years, another 19 years, and so on. To this account is added, a list of persons, who died in custody since the year 1812, the number amounting to 20. Of these, one unfortunate man had passed 31 years, 10 months and 14 days, under personal restraint; two had suffered imprisonment for 14 years, and others for periods of eleven, nine, and eight years.

Drawing in perspective has been introduced into some of the elementary (Lancasterian) schools in France. A work on this subject, adapted to mutual instruction, has been prepared by Francœr, professor in Paris. [*Silliman's Journal.*

A steam boat has been constructed to run between Stockholm and St. Petersburgh. The passage, which has heretofore been tedious and uncertain, can now be effected in sixty hours. [*Ibid.*

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

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The Constitution.—It was perhaps too much to hope from any *southern* man, but we should not have been surprised had Mr. Lowndes agreed with Mr. Sergeant, to postpone the Missouri question, by recommending that the constitution should be remanded to the people, on account of the clause forbidding the entrance into the state of free people of colour. The question before the committee was of so different a nature from that of the last session, that even the members who considered themselves pledged by their former speeches and votes, might have agreed to postpone the admission of the state, without any change of opinion, or any appearance of inconsistency. It is with much sorrow that we perceive the fallacy of all hope of a spirit of forbearance and conciliation in the members from the slaveholding states. It seems that there can be no aggravation of the folly and crime of the majority in Missouri, that will induce their advocates to listen to their old friends, and to refuse their support to pretensions urged with an arrogant disregard to decorum and right. Had there been nothing more than the clause forbidding the legislature to pass laws for emancipation, we should not have expected from the opposite party any deference to the opinion of a majority of the nation: but when the constitution formed by Missouri is so plainly repugnant to the spirit and letter of the *Supreme Law of the Land*, we could not forbear to indulge some hope, that the question might yet be left undecided. We shall hereafter trust but little to worth and ability, when opposed by prejudice and party rancour.

The committee think no part of the constitution of the United States "more difficult to construe well, than that clause which gives to the citizens of each state the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several states." And to *avoid* the question, they wish to leave it, "whenever a case occurs which must *necessarily* involve the decision of it," to judicial cognizance. They are not content to do this, however, without expressing an opinion that it is *settled* that a state has a right to discriminate between the white and black man, though both be citizens of another state. After such a decision of the question, it looks like insincerity to pretend to leave it to the judges. But were it left without the expression of any opinion by the committee, it is idle to talk of the question coming before the judges. What black man would dare to contest the point with the state of Georgia, or any other in which the slave interest predominates? The committee are particularly anxious that their recommendation should be followed, on account of the embarrassments and disasters of refusing admission to Missouri. Without denying that there will be some inconvenience, it may safely be said, that there will be far less than has been threatened; but, for our own part, we had rather that Missouri should be forever "without any check from the constitution," than to abandon what has been well described by the author of the Federalist, as the basis of the union.

The southern papers are full of declamation upon the inexpediency of a renewal of the question, and they call upon the "candid and patriotic" among the northern politicians, to give their influence in favour of a silent and speedy admission of Missouri. We have no hesitation in claiming these qualities, but they are far from inclining us to such a course. We have listened with openness of mind and kindness of heart to all that has been said, and find nothing to convince us that reason or law is on the side of slavery. And we should think ourselves devoid of all patriotic attachments, did we not view with indignation an attempt to subvert the constitution of the United States. We are told by the author of a pamphlet published in this city, "On the Impropriety and Inexpediency of renewing the Missouri Question," that the part of the national compact which guarantees to citizens of any state the rights possessed by citizens of other states, cannot be carried into effect, and that we must acquiesce in its silent surrender! If there

be a mendments necessary, let them be proposed to the people in the usual manner, and let not the constitution be trampled under foot by a factious minority. We would willingly avoid harsh language, but we can find no other words to express our opinion of a party, who threaten to refuse submission to the majority, and to act in contempt of all law.

The newspapers of the south accuse the free states of exciting anew this dreadful contention; but there is no ground for the imputation. Without inquiring at present into the propriety of such a course, we believe we are safe in asserting, that the claims of Missouri would have met with no strong opposition, had she left the grounds of dispute untouched, and suffered her policy to be guided by future circumstances. It is the unfriendly and foolish wish to exult over the free states, together with the malignant determination to do all that can be done to oppose the progress of improvement, that has alarmed all whose understandings are not blinded by prejudice, or perverted by a false view of interest. The slaveholding states have raised the debate, and have endeavoured to carry their views into effect, under circumstances which give us a most confident hope of their failure. If the advocates of freedom maintain their ground with mildness and firmness, their success is hardly doubtful.

New Tariff and Missouri.—We have great cause to rejoice, that immediately after the north and the south had been placed in animated contest upon an important measure, in which the division of opinion was almost entirely marked by geographical boundaries, there should arise another to break up the parties, and to form other connexions. The south and the north have combined upon the question of the tariff, against a party in the middle states and the west; and a striking instance is thus afforded to all, of the inestimable advantages of an union.

Apropos. How are we to account for the fact, that the advocates of an artificial system of manufactures, are among the most lukewarm in their opposition to the extension of slavery?

The Georgia legislature have passed resolutions expressive of their continued approbation of the conduct of their members of Congress at the last session, in relation to the Tariff and Missouri questions.

A letter from Hayti states, that measures are about to be adopted to forbid the admission of vessels from any state or colony in which people of colour are held in slavery.

Public Lands.—A writer in the National Gazette complains, that while so much is done for the relief of the debtors of the national treasury, in the south and west, those in the north and east are forced to pay to the uttermost farthing. Demands for debts on land are postponed to meet the wishes of the purchaser, but from the merchant who owes the duties, the collectors and marshals exact the most rigorous punctuality. It is a subject that has been growing more and more difficult for many years past. The present amount of the debt due for public lands is $22,000,657, and if its increase had not been prevented by the late law, commanding all sales to be hereafter made for cash, we should before many years have been told by the debtors, that however true it might be in *theory* that they ought to pay, it was entirely *impossible in practice*, and that those who were urging Congress to take some measures to secure the debt, were traitors to their country, and were endeavouring to dissolve the union. We often see, even now, in the western papers, grievous complaints that the Atlantic states should reap such a harvest from the inland territories. The debt due for lands is considered by the newspaper essayists, as a *national tax*, operating unequally, because it presses altogether upon the south and west. We must confess that we can see no other reason for making a difference between the debts due for lands and those for duties, than that the latter have generally been paid with great punctuality: the others have been so long accustomed to what they call *relief*, that they cannot well do without it. This relief, like the poor laws, has created tenfold more distress than it has ever removed.

We venture to offer for consideration a plan for affording some respite to the debtors, and insuring the eventual payment of what is due. Let the price engaged to be paid for the lands remain on mortgage (the yearly payment of the interest being regularly exacted) for three, five or ten years, as may be deemed expedient. At the end of that time, let a portion of the principal be demanded, and payment enforced if necessary; and at the end of every year thereafter require the payment of a certain proportion, say one-twentieth, of the original debt. Such a law, to be effectual, should be like those of the Medes and Persians.

The *New York Legislature* seems determined to annoy governor Clinton while it has the power. A request was made, in consequence of an allusion in his speech, that the governor should lay before the Senate, any proof in his possession, of the interference of the officers of the general government in state elections. He replied "by a courteous communication, which alleged that the evidence requested would be furnished in due time." Without waiting a reasonable time for it to be collected and arranged, the majority in the Senate have passed a resolution, in which they assume that no testimony can be found, and unceremoniously state the conduct of the governor to be highly improper. The resolution was ordered to be published, and a copy to be sent to his excellency, who on the next day (the last of the session) returned the following message in answer.

TO THE SENATE.

Gentlemen—I have this moment received a resolution of your honourable body, which, as well as the one to which it refers, I shall fully notice at the next meeting of the legislature: And I shall, therefore, at this late hour, pass it over with the expression of my sincere regret, that any branch of the legislature should in so unprecedented a manner, lose sight of the respect due to itself, and the courtesy due to a coordinate department of the government.

DE WITT CLINTON.

This message, by a party vote, the Senate refused to receive; and ordered the clerk to return it to the governor.

Were Mr. Clinton merely a selfish politician, he would rejoice at this indecent violence of his enemies: it cannot injure him, but must recoil with disgrace upon themselves.

There is a circumstance connected with the resolution of the Senate, upon which we will take the liberty of making a remark. By a rule of the Senate, when one-third of the members present oppose the consideration of a motion, it cannot be taken up on the same day in which it is made. In this case, there were 12 opposed to 17; but one of the majority moved to *dispense with that rule*, which was carried. This is by no means a novel case, but is not therefore the less reprehensible. Such rules are made to prevent tyrannical overbearance, and to guard against the enactment of laws without due consideration.

We are glad to hear that the report of general Ripley's death is untrue. It has been printed in all the newspapers, and has called forth several funereal eulogies, and biographical sketches of life and character. The National Intelligencer observes, that the general may enjoy the rare advantage of seeing his character portrayed as it will be after his death.

Record.

CONGRESS.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

The committee to whom has been referred the constitution of the state of Missouri, respectfully report:

That they have not supposed themselves bound to inquire whether the provisions of the constitution referred to them be wise or liberal. The grave and difficult question as to the restraints which should be imposed upon the power of Missouri to form a constitution for itself, was decided by the act of the last session, and the committee have had only to examine whether the provisions of that act have been complied with. In the opinion of the committee, they have been. The propositions, too, which were offered in the same act to the free acceptance or rejection of the people of Missouri, have all been accepted by them. But there remains a question too important to be overlooked.

We know that cases must often arise in which there may be a doubt whether the laws or constitution of a state do not transcend the line (sometimes the obscure line) which separates the powers of the different governments of our complex system. It appears to the committee, that, in general, it must be unwise in Congress to anticipate judicial decision by the exposition of an equivocal phrase, and that it would be yet more objectionable, by deciding on the powers of a state just emerged from territorial dependence, that it should give the weight of its authority to an opinion which might condemn the laws and constitutions of old, as well as sovereign states. The committee are not unaware that a part of the twenty-sixth section of the third article of the constitution of Missouri, by which the legislature of the state has been directed to pass laws "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to, and settling in, the state," has been construed to apply to such of that class as are citizens of the United States, and that their exclusion has been deemed repugnant to the federal constitution. The words which are objected to are to be found in the laws of at least one of the middle states (Delaware), and a careful examination of the clause might perhaps countenance the opinion that it applies to the large class of free negroes and mulattoes who cannot be considered as the citizens of any state. But, of all the articles in our constitution, there is probably not one more difficult to construe well than that which gives to the citizens of each state the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several states; there is not one, an attention to whose spirit is more necessary to the convenient and beneficial connexion of states; nor one of which too large a construction would more completely break down their defensive power, and lead more directly to their

consolidation. This much, indeed, seems to be settled by the established constitutions of states in every section of our union: that a state has a right to discriminate between the white and the black man, both in respect to political and civil privileges, though both be citizens of another state: to give to the one, for instance, the right of voting and of serving on juries, which it refuses to the other. How far this discrimination may be carried, is obviously a matter of nice and difficult inquiry. The committee do not propose to engage in it. They believe it best, whenever a case occurs which must *necessarily* involve the decision of it, that it should be remitted to judicial cognizance.

In this view (which narrows their inquiries and duties), they are confirmed, by a consideration of the embarrassments and disasters which a different course of proceeding might sometimes produce. When a people are authorized to form a state, and do so, the trammels of their territorial condition fall off. They have performed the act which makes them sovereign and independent. If they pass an unconstitutional law, and we leave it, as we should that of another state, to the decision of a judicial tribunal, the illegal act is divested of its force by the operation of a system with which we are familiar. The control of the general government is exercised in each particular case, in support of individual right, and the state retains the condition which it has just acquired, and would not easily renounce. But a decision by Congress against the constitutionality of a law passed by a state of which it had authorized the establishment, could not operate directly by vacating the law; nor is it believed that it could reduce the state to the dependence of a territory. In these circumstances, to refuse admission into the union of such a state, is to refuse to extend over it that judicial authority which might vacate the obnoxious law, and to expose all the interests of the government within the territory of that state, to a legislature and a judiciary, the only checks on which have been abandoned. On the other hand, if Congress shall determine neither to expound clauses which are obscure, nor to decide constitutional questions which must be difficult and perplexing, equally interesting to old states, whom our construction could not, as to the new, whom it ought not to coerce, the rights and duties of Missouri will be left to the determination of the same temperate and impartial tribunal which has decided the conflicting claims, and received the confidence of the other states.

The mayor of this city has issued an official notice to put the people upon their guard against the artifices of foreigners "of good address, but of base and depraved principles," who have for many years past, "visited our country with forged credentials, counterfeit recommendations, and spurious statements of alleged losses. These sons of deception have traversed the country in almost every direction, exhibiting their false documents for the purpose of obtaining money for the ostensible object of redeeming some of their near relatives from Algerine slavery, others to rebuild churches destroyed by fire or earthquakes, to assist distressed villagers whose all had been swept away by some sad catastrophe, or to remunerate for losses lately sustained by pirates on the ocean." It is said that very large sums have thus been collected, and that there is a regular "rendezvous in this city whence they issue on their depredatory excursions, and after being absent from three to twelve months, and sometimes longer, they return with their spoil." Having been creditably informed that "*ten* additional recruits to the corps have arrived at this port from Europe," and have "in company with twelve or fourteen others, started to the westward," our active and worthy mayor has thought it proper to "put the unwary on their guard, and to caution them against placing any confidence in documents that may be handed to them clothed with all the apparent formality of consular certificates, seals and signatures, as well as the names of other highly respectable characters, as it is fully believed, that scarcely in a single instance are they genuine."

The grand jury of the city and county of New York, have found an indictment against one of the venders of national lottery tickets.

On the 23d ult. Mr. Guille ascended with his balloon, detached a monkey in a parachute, and came down himself at Mantua in safety.

A correspondent of the Albany Gazette, says that he has seen sewing silk of domestic manufacture, superior in beauty to any imported. The woman who had it for sale came from Connecticut, and states that there are mulberry trees near her residence from which she took the web made by the silk worm, and spun the silk herself.

The Massachusets convention is yet occupied by the great business of amending the constitution.

Agriculture.

A Discourse read before the Essex Agricultural Society, in Massachusetts, February 21, 1820; *suggesting some improvements in the agriculture of the county. By Timothy Pickering, president of the society.*

(Continued from p. 344.)

On Root Crops.

Premiums having been proposed to encourage the raising of carrots, ruta baga and mangel wurtzel; and as these articles, cultivated extensively, are of vast importance to farmers; I can perhaps in no way better promote the views of the society, in their vote before mentioned, than by describing the methods of cultivating those roots, which elsewhere have been practised with great success, but to which, and indeed to the roots themselves (carrots excepted) most of our husbandmen are strangers.

The introduction of clover, and subse-

quently carrying the culture of the common turnip extensively into the field, marked distinguished eras in the improvements of English husbandry. At a later period, carrots were cultivated by some farmers; and within a few years past, the mangel wurtzel and the ruta baga have become objects of general cultivation. And now these five articles constitute essential branches of the highly improved husbandry of Great Britain.

Common Turnips. These for a long time were raised (and perhaps this practice is still very general) by sowing the seeds broad-cast, and weeding and thinning them with hoes, till the plants stood at from a foot to fifteen inches apart. But the most correct practice appears to be that of drilling the seeds in rows, and hoeing and keeping them clear from weeds. And this weak, watery root has been the principal food of immense flocks of store sheep, during the winter; and when plentifully given, only with the addition of straw, has served to fatten cattle and sheep for the market.

Carrots. Even these plants, so long after they vegetate extremely small, were also raised from seed sown broad-cast. But this awkward practice, I believe, has generally given way to the row-culture, whether the seeds were sown by hand, or by the instrument called a drill. In very rich land, great crops have been raised where the rows were only from twelve to fifteen inches apart. The great crop of 752 bushels, weighing eighteen tons and three quarters, raised on one acre, in Salem, by Erastus Ware, in 1817, was in rows about sixteen inches apart. The seed was sown the 14th of May. But I am inclined to think a preferable mode would be, to sow the seeds in double rows about ten inches apart, with intervals of three feet between the double rows, so as to admit a small plough, as well as the hoe, in their cultivation. In this case, a deep furrow being opened by the plough, the manure should be regularly thrown into it, and covered by four back furrows, so forming a ridge over the manure; and this ridge being laid level with a light harrow, or with rakes, or if the soil be in fine tilth, by a light roller, will then be ready to receive the seed. As soon as the carrots are plainly to be seen, they should be hoed and weeded; or the weeds will soon outstrip the carrots (which are of very slow growth at first) and render their cleansing vastly more troublesome and laborious. They should also be thinned, to stand single, and only from three to five inches apart in the rows; or the roots will be small, and cost much more time in handling and topping (cutting or wringing off the tops) at the time of harvesting them. The entire crop, too, will doubtless be smaller than when the plants are thinned as here recommended.

The Mangel Wurtzel. This plant yields a much more abundant crop than the carrot; and at the same time contains, in the same quantity or weight of roots, a great deal more nourishment: whence it is natural to suppose that it requires a richer soil than carrots. I have not made sufficient trials to enable me to express a decided opinion on the best mode of cultivating the mangel wurtzel; and will therefore lay before you the successful practice, on strong land, in the county of Essex, in England, as it is stated, from a recent English publication, by the Philadelphia Society of Agriculture.*

The mangel wurtzel is sometimes called the great, or improved beet, and root of scarcity; but now, more generally, mangel wurtzel, its German name. The following is the account of its culture, at Bedfords, in Essex.

"It may be proper, in the first place, to state what is meant by *strong land*. The surface soil is loamy, and from four to twelve inches deep, upon a bed of strong clay mixed with gravel. It is too heavy, and generally too wet, in the winter, even for sheep to eat a crop of turnips on the ground; and although good turnips are raised upon it, it is always necessary to draw them for the sheep, stall-fed cattle, or cattle in the yards.

"In the middle, or latter end of the month of April, the furrows are set out with the plough, two feet apart, and double ploughed; that is, the plough returns on the (same) furrow to the point whence it set out, forming a ridge between each two furrows.

"Double ploughing with a common plough is preferable to single ploughing with a double mould board plough, because it affords a greater depth of loose earth than the double mould board plough would produce.

"In these furrows, the manure, which should be in a rotten state, is deposited, after the rate of six cubic yards to an acre.†

* Memoirs of the society, vol iii. Appendix.

† Six cubic yards contain 162 cubic feet, or three cartloads for a pair of oxen. A cart body, 7 feet long, 4 feet wide, and 2 feet high, *in the clear*, contains 56 cubic feet; and three times 56 are 168. I doubt the necessity of manure being "in a rotten state," seeing it is to be so

"The ridges are then split by the plough, going and returning the same way as before mentioned; leaving the manure immediately under the middle of the new ridges. A light roller is then passed along the ridges,* in the middle of which the seed is dibbled, so that the plants may receive all the benefit which can be derived from the manure.†

"The seed is deposited about an inch deep, whilst the moisture is fresh on the earth,‡ and covered by drawing a garden rake along the rows. After this, the light roller is again passed along the ridges, (to press the earth upon the seeds) and the work is finished.

"When the plants are about the size of a radish, they are hoed with a turnip hoe, leaving the plants in the row about twelve inches apart. If any of the seeds fail, and there happen not to be an even crop, the roots where they are too thick are drawn out before the hoeing takes place, and transplanted to fill up the vacant places, and insure a full crop; which is always certain, inasmuch as 99 plants out of 100 thrive and do well. In transplanting, care is necessary to prevent the point of the root from turning upwards.

"The weeds, while the plants are young, are kept hoed; but after the head of the plant has once spread, no weed can live under its shade; and the expense of hoeing afterwards is trifling indeed.

"The whole of the crop is taken up in the month of November,§ in dry weather. The tops are cut off near the *crown* of the plants, and the plants, when perfectly dry, are piled up in a shed, and covered with straw sufficiently thick to preserve them from the frost. They kept last year till the latter end of March, and they would have kept much longer.

"Where a field selected for a crop of beet (the mangel wurtzel) happens to be in a foul state, the seed had better be sown in a garden, and the whole field planted with the young beet, when of the size of a radish. This will give time for cleaning the

deeply buried, for this or any other root crop intended for the food of domestic animals; especially for mangel wurtzel, which, to obtain a full crop, should be sown very early, as soon as the ground is dry enough to be ploughed. The powerful fermentation of fresh dung might impart to the soil a salutary warmth in the cool spring season. At least it may be worth while to try it.

* These narrow ridges, as formed by the plough, are sharp: by passing a light roller over them they are flattened to a breadth of eight or nine inches. The light roller, drawn by a horse, that walks in the furrow between them, flattens two ridges at a time. Thus rolled, the manure will be covered eight or nine inches deep.

† A dibble is a simple tool, which may be of different sizes and forms, according to the uses it is intended to serve. If for setting (in transplanting) cabbages or other like plants, it may be a round stick about an inch and a quarter in diameter, shaved down at one end (in a slope of eight or ten inches long) to a blunt point. An old spade or shovel handle is well adapted to the purpose. If much used, the slope may be advantageously covered smoothly with iron. But for putting in *seeds*, the dibble may be in the form of the letter T. To make one take a piece of wood about three feet four inches long, and about an inch and a quarter square. In one of the sides bore holes in a line, and insert teeth at the proposed distance of the plants in the row: if for mangel wurtzel, at ten, eleven, or twelve inches apart: and let the teeth be as long (projecting from the head-piece) as the proposed depth at which the seeds are to be sown. On the opposite side of the head-piece, bore a hole in the middle, large enough to receive a handle of convenient length. On the top of the handle fix a cross piece five or six inches long, to be grasped by the hand in using the tool. With it, as many holes for seeds will be made, at every movement, as there are teeth in the head. The handle may require bracing, in like manner as a rake handle and its head are braced by means of bows.

It now occurs to me, that perhaps the light roller used in levelling the tops of the ridges may be set with teeth, and thus perform the additional office of making holes for the seed; and with vastly greater expedition than by dibbling. A light roller, long enough to flatten two ridges at once, of thirteen inches in diameter, and furnished with two sets of four teeth each, to pass along the middles of two adjoining ridges—and the four teeth of each set being inserted at equal distances in a circle of the roller—the holes for the seed would be made at the desired distance of near one foot from each other The teeth should be so shaped as to leave the holes made by them fairly open. For this purpose they may be an inch and a half wide and three quarters of an inch thick, where their shoulders are fayed to the roller, and taper thence to a rounded thick edge at their extremities. The same teeth, if not too long, may serve to regulate and expedite the sowing of the ruta baga seed.

‡ It is very important to have seeds of all kinds sown as soon as possible after the ground is ploughed and prepared to receive them, and before the moisture of the fresh stirred earth is dissipated by the sun and drying winds: otherwise some may never vegetate, or not till after a fall of rain; and so precious time may be lost, and an uneven crop be produced.

§ The time of taking up the mangel wurtzel must be regulated by the climate. There is sometimes a frost in the latter part of October, in this county, severe enough to injure this root, exposed, as the greater part of it is, above ground. Light frosts, however, will do it no harm, while the roots remain in the ground, and in a degree sheltered by their leaves.

ground, and fitting it for a crop; for although the beets are destroyers of weeds, it is not meant to recommend sowing them on foul ground, or in any way to encourage a slovenly system of farming.

"The method of cultivating the beet root here recommended is the same as that used in the cultivation of turnips, in Northumberland and other parts of the north (of England) with this exception, that the rows there are twenty-seven inches apart. There may be reasons in the north for still preserving that space; but in Essex the effect of it, in the cultivation of the beet root, would be, that instead of forty-eight tons per acre, forty-three tons only would be obtained. Experience has proved, that the roots do not get to a larger size in rows three feet apart, than they do in rows two feet apart. It may therefore fairly be presumed, that they would not be larger, in rows twenty-seven inches apart; and if not larger, the weight of the crop, per acre, must be less, because the plants decrease in number as the rows increase in space."

(*To be continued.*)

Miscellany.

From the New Monthly Magazine.

Lake School of Poetry—Mr. Wordsworth.

It may seem an ill timed and unnecessary attempt of periodical criticism to recur to works that have reached beyond the proper sphere of its power—works that have had much influence on the poetical sentiment and taste of these countries—that have called forth well deserved admiration and merited contempt—that have been hailed in different minds with *religion* and ridicule—by different classes of readers with enthusiasm and apathy, with pleasure and disgust—that have made us acquainted not only with new habits of composition, but also with new modes of thinking; but it is the office, nay the *bounden duty* of every one that regards the welfare of the public taste, and is anxious to preserve the purity of the national poetry, however he may admire the grander traits of those productions, to warn the unwary reader, and the dreaming enthusiast, of the faulty and corrupt system of the greater portion of this modern poetry. Its disciples are men of genius—its air is imposing; few hearts are proof against an air of simplicity—the most engaging introduction to the human heart, though it be even nothing but mock simplicity. Many are pleased with the delineation of the feelings, habits, and affections of the unsophisticated sojourner of rural seclusion; but few are so well acquainted with him as to know whether the sketch be true or counterfeit, faithful or caricatured; and there are too many congenial dreamers, who are pleased with the sublime and shadowy enigmas they cannot comprehend, who conceive what the writer never imagined, who think depth of thought lies in obscurity of expression, and are enthusiastic in the undefined and indefinable feelings and vapoury abstractions of the strong, thoughtful, and fanciful minds, under the frenzy rolling and fascinating eye of whose imaginations they are more than spell bound. It is evident from all this that I allude to the Lake School of Poetry.

Now, if the maxim of the poetical critic of the highest poetical and cultivated age, "*recte scribendi sapere est et principium et fons,*" be founded in truth, no system can be more opposed to the principle than that of those modern bards, who boldly overleap the barriers of definite knowledge, and consequently of wisdom—who trifle with the babyism of children—who affect the idiotism of fools both in sentiment and expression, and institute a poetical bedlam on the top of Parnassus—whose Pegasus sometimes seems to be nothing but the hobby horse of an infant—who seem to prefer to the winged and fiery courser of the poet, to win the race of poetical honour by bestriding the broomstick and by humbly submitting "*equitare arundine longa*—" who prefer a straight waistcoat to the fine floating mantle of the Muses, and a fool's cap to the evergreen garland of legitimate poetical power—who sin against taste most flagrantly in adapting the diction of a factitious rustic barbarism to the sublime philosophy they aim at, and the high and fervid inspiration they affect.

Unless the true and general maxim "*the proper study of mankind is man,*" be *now* disputed, and must *now* be superseded, we cannot approve of that part of the system of the Lake Minstrelsy, that neglects rational exalted man, to lavish its powers upon naturals, idiots, and madmen—that transfers poetical agency from rational to irrational creatures, from animated to inanimate nature—that would thus work upon our hearts and influence our actions: there is something in this neither strictly nor poetically moral. It is a sort of *poetical misanthropy*—worse than the *moral misanthropy* of Byron, to disregard immortal man, and teach him from clouds, trees, air, flowers, fools, cattle, children and madmen.

It seems like dwelling with something of a complacent and continued satisfaction on the weaknesses and blemishes of our frailties and natures—though few can conceive the sublimities of the human mind more nobly, or its heavenly attributes more powerfully, or have a more comprehensive or minute knowledge of the most delicate workings of the human heart. It seems to be a kind of *poetical materialism* too, to subject mind to matter, to bind down the imperishable spirit in the trammels of perishable objects, which is a system uniformly preserved in the entire range of the Lake poesy.

Akenside himself, who seems to be *one* of the prototypes of the Lake bards, shows how much inferior the poetry of such feelings is to the "moral species," to "the powers of passion and of thought." Out of many beautiful instances I will quote the following sublime passage.

———Or is there in the abyss,
Is there, among the adamantine spheres,
Wheeling unshaken through the boundless void,
Aught that with half such majesty can fill
The human bosom, as when Brutus rose
Refulgent, from the stroke of Cæsar's fate
Amid the crowd of patriots; and his arm
Aloft extending like eternal Jove
When guilt brings down the thunder, call'd aloud
On Tully's name, and shook the crimson sword
Of justice in his rapt astonished eye,
And bade the father of his country hail,
For lo! the tyrant prostrate in the dust,
And Rome again is free!

This is the opinion of the philosophical Akenside. Would that his *partial* imitators would adopt and profit by it—would that they were content to

Adapt the finer organs of the mind
To certain attributes which matter claims;

and not set up an exclusive supremacy of *matter* over *mind*. But the *Lakers* seem to have vitiated the purity, simplicity, and philosophy of their admired models—Cowper and Akenside, by German exaggeration. For the same morbid sensibility manifested in the creation of character and sentiment and action in the one class of writers, is transferred to the feelings derived from the visible creation, by the other. So that the Lake poetry is a sort of mongrel minstrelsy, made up of English truth and simplicity, and German exaggeration and eccentricity; of English meaning and German mystery, so blended, that it takes an air of something *novel*, sometimes beautiful, sometimes ridiculous, and always so in exact proportion to the predominate likeness it bears to one or the other of the ill mated partners of its parentage.

The subject of the present article, the "Magnus Apollo" of this new and incongruous realm of the Muses, is Mr. Wordsworth. In him all its beauties exist in the highest degree, as also its faults in the greatest number, though we think they could be shown more flagrantly from some others of the tribe, which proves that faults are generally the landmarks of imitation. It is curious to observe the modifications of the system, as it has acted on differently constituted minds. Mr. Wordsworth seems to be the only man amongst them that can master it felicitously. Mr. Coleridge is more gloomy, more metaphysical, more mysterious. No prophet ever sat on the tripod with a higher air of mystery, or delivered his dark oracles with deeper tones of raving sublimity. It is a shadowy and dark thunder storm in his hand, that obscures all nature, where nothing is seen except from a few bright intermittent flashes of lightning. Mr. Wilson seems to be too *fanciful* and not *imaginative* enough—to be too fond of turns, delicacies, and quaintnesses, for the simplicity of its nature. It seems to be a black cloud over him, that he is striving to colour into a rainbow, but he cannot make the lights and shades mingle delicately enough to make it span the heaven as a natural arch.

It is in Mr. Montgomery's hand a spent thunderbolt, all its fire quenched, all its power lost. When it is in the hands of the cockney bards and others, it is such a *hybrid* and incongruous species, that like that *non-descript* age of Juvenal's mythology it can be illustrated from nothing in nature. The laureate belongs to the school, but we would wish to raise him above it, from his creation of character, and description of actions, and because though often extravagant he is never ridiculous till he comes under the influence of its silly affectation or incurable egotism—which is a loathsome cancer, inherent in its very nature; and *I, self, mine,* must be the tiresome and eternal burden of the song, while there exists an imitator of the system. It must run in its essence, in its very blood, from father to son, till its final extinction. In Mr. Wordsworth alone it is in its native and natural soil. He has a mind, meditative, mild, and philsophical, and a heart delicately sensitive to all the impulses from visible nature, with a reflection and abstraction capable of embodying and making mind-created and local existences in the human heart, of those spiritual feelings, excited, from the impulse of natural objects, by a communion of sense and soul. In the happier effects of this mental pro-

cess, his poetry is like a mild autumn day, with quick and fleeting successive alternations of sun and shadow—or rather like a soft moonlight night, where objects are not less lovely for being less defined, where those that can be seen, are seen more accurately than in the glare of day, and where the distant scenes, though obscured by an impervious shadow, undefined and undefinable to the most piercing ken, yet the mysterious veil that envelops them is so glowing, so mild, and so mellow, that though we cannot admire themselves, we admire the painted mist that wraps them from our grosser sense with its rich and delicate texture. But this spirit of abstraction when it soars into the region, or rather sinks into the abyss of the "dark profound" of mysticism, and bounds beyond the pale of human reason, and even human imagination—at least of common reasons, and common imaginations—is nothing but (to use words of his own)

> "An instinct—a blind sense
> Coming one knows not how nor whence
> Nor whither going."

And of what use is this *blind sense?* Of none. It is more fantastic, more visionary, more superstitious, more mischievous than the *second sight* in the Isle of Sky. The cause of this obscurity is plain. In the descriptions of the visible world, these poets strive to describe the simple feelings excited by *accidents*, which, like the simple ideas of Locke, can only be felt, but never defined—to body forth in the tangible and corporeal shape of language, these spiritual sensations, begotten by an intellectual communion with nature, modified by the most refined sensibility, the most subtle abstraction, and the most abstruse metaphysical imagination, vainly striving to make words a "mock apparel" to "unutterable thought." Hence they are obscure; hence they are mysterious.

But it is not against this I chiefly protest; though its excess is a most inexcusable blemish, it is a fault that leans to virtue's side. These grand and sublimated conceptions of nature, like many other of its properties, must be obscure, but we can never read many pages before we are disgusted, with silliness, rudeness, meanness, affectation, eccentric thinking and false simplicity, which when it is not mere babyism, degenerates into perfect folly; and in wise men wittingly writing in this manner is even worse, for they seem to suppose, through a vain egotistical importance (of which agreeable quality the most modest of them has as much as would stock any ten poets, and those not of the most unassuming demeanour), because they can write well when it pleases them, they can cram folly and poetical impertinence, like a nauseous drug, which they even disdain to sweeten, down the throat of a nation's healthful taste, and change the masculine strength and spirits, and the true simplicity of the English poetry into the weak and watery style of their affected childishness and fainting affectation. I wonder from which of the imaginative bards of their adoration, could they get the smallest foundation for such a flimsy superstructure. Will they find any such cobwebs woven in the brains of Spenser, Shakspeare, Milton, Thomson, Akenside, Cowper, their great idols? They will plead the authority of the old ballads; but even there the plea made by them would be demurred to in any legitimate or learned court of criticism. There is an honest rudeness, a true simplicity, an unaffected description, a plain style of sentiment running through those old legends, that but ill harmonize with the disingenuous affectation of style, sense, and feeling, that characterizes some of these insipid lucubrations.

Let us take any one of those ridiculous pieces of burlesque, for instance "*The Idiot Boy.*" In its story, its language, its conduct, its sentiment, it is mean, improbable, uninteresting, affected and ludicrous. The story is the adventures of a Fool's errand; an idiot is sent for a doctor, who instead of bringing the doctor, to be sure, with Mr. W.'s accurate knowledge of the modes of thought and habits of action peculiar to idiotism, is putting stars in his pocket or playing with a waterfall, (by the way, a sport Mr. W. is very fond of as well as his fool). But now let us consider this piece of factitious impertinence, and see whether it possesses any thing of true or natural simplicity or real feeling. Listen to the caparisoning of *Johnny's Pony* and the mounting of *Johnny.* Spirit of Homer! hide your diminished head. The horses of Mars were never harnessed with such "pomp, pride, and circumstance," by Flight and Terror; they are mean grooms when compared to the *fiddling-faddling* of *Betty Foy!!* Hebe herself, preparing Juno's chariot steeds, is a poor personage to her!!

> Why bustle thus about your door,
> What means this bustle, *Betty Foy?*
> Why are you in this mighty fret?
> * * * *
> Beneath the moon, that shines so bright,
> Till she is tired, let *Betty Foy*
> With girt and stirrup *fiddle-faddle;*
> But wherefore set upon a saddle
> Him whom she loves, her idiot boy?

Certainly a sensible question, "*wherefore set upon a saddle?*" How will Mr. W. answer it? No doubt, he will say there was no one else

To bring a doctor from the town,
Or she will die, *old Susan Gale.*

Even the harnessing of the celestial steeds for the chariot of the sun sinks into insignificance before the preparation of *Betty's pony*, which being brought home, after, we do not know whether "feeding in the lane," or "drawing home faggots from the wood," either "in joy," or "in pain," (as if it concerned us to know whether he was not blind or spavined,)

—— Is all in travelling trim,
And by the moonlight, *Betty Foy*
Has up upon the saddle set,
(*The like was never heard of yet*)

(We doubt not that, indeed,)

Him whom she loves, her idiot boy.

Well, *Johnny* is up without "boot" or "spur," or "whip" or "wand," but armed with "his holly bough," he makes "*a hurly-burly now.*" Betty now gives him her directions—her last admonition is really excellent—it is simple and loving and maternal! Phœbus's advice to Phaeton will not bear comparison with this address.

"*Johnny! Johnny!* mind that you
Come home again, nor stop at all—
Come home again, whate'er befal
My *Johnny*, do, I pray you do."

Johnny answered with "his head and with his hand,"

And proudly shook the bridle too.

The following description of Johnny's joy after being mounted, is superlative. What is the delight of Phaeton after receiving the reins from his father to it!

But when the pony moved his legs,
Oh! then for the poor idiot boy!
For joy he cannot hold the bridle,
For joy his head and heels are idle,
He's idle all for very joy.

And while the pony moves his legs,
In *Johnny's* left hand you may see
The green bough's motionless and dead:
The moon that shines above his head
Is not more still or mute than he.

His heart it was so full of glee,
That till full fifty yards were gone,
He quite forgot his holly whip
And all his skill in horsemanship.
Oh! happy, happy, happy, John."

Oh! "happy, happy, happy pair!" Johnny and his pony!—*happy Johnny Foy!!* happier far than Johnny Gilpin, both in the bard who sings your travels, and in your good humoured hack. Well, *Betty* standing at the door observes with joy

How quietly her Johnny goes.

She rejoices in his silence, sees him turn "the guide post right," and watches him in maternal pride till he is out of sight.

Burr, burr—now *Johnny's* lips the *burr*
As loud as any mill, or near it,
And *Johnny* makes the noise he loves,
And Betty listens glad to hear it.

We are told a line or two above that *Betty* rejoiced in the silence of her idiot boy—and really *Johnny's burr* must have been "as loud as any mill, or near it," if *Betty* heard it after he was out of sight.

Well Johnny goes on:

The owlets hoot, the owlets *curr*,
And Johnny's lips, they *burr, burr, burr*,
As on he goes *beneath* the moon.

We wonder much it was *beneath* the moon—the moon, no doubt, drawn down from heaven by the attractive harmony of this divine duet between *Johnny's burring* and the owlets *curring*, should have been dancing under his pony's feet. We are now treated with a most novel and original description of the good humour of the pony.

For of this pony there's a rumour,
That should he lose his eyes and ears,
And should he live a thousand years
He never will be out of humour.

This would be strange if we could believe the next line.

But then he is a horse that thinks.

Balaam's ass spoke, and Achilles' horse prophesied—no doubt a greater gift; but Mr. Wordsworth makes us acquainted with the pony's habit of thought in the very next line.

And when he thinks his pace is slack.

We wonder he did not make him fold his fore legs over his breast—sure it would be natural! Yet we think the following lines rather tend to shake our implicit credency in the thinking faculty of this intellectual nag.

Now though he knows poor Johnny well,
Yet for his life he cannot tell
What he has got upon his back.

Well, Betty now "not quite so flurried," nurse-tends *Old Susan*, hands her the "porringer and plate," talks diverting things of Johnny, till his delay becomes matter of fear and suspicion; but we will pass over the accurate registry of the hours, and tell only how

Poor Susan moans, poor Susan groans,

while Betty avers, "He'll be back again" before eleven,

As sure as there's a moon in heaven.

Well, 'tis twelve—"The moon is in heaven as *Betty* sees," and yet neither *Johnny* nor the doctor appears. "Betty is in a sad quandary;" she "is not quite at *ease*," a strong expression for maternal affection—at length,

The clock is on the stroke of one,

and away Betty sets out after Johnny, being urged thus warmly by sick Susan,

"Nay, Betty, go! good Betty, go!"
And how she ran, and how she walk'd,
And all that to herself she talk'd
Would surely be a tedious tale.

No doubt, indeed!—Well, she sees Johnny in every object,

In bush, and brake, in black and green,
'Twas Johnny, Johnny, everywhere,

till at the doctor's door

She lifts the knocker, *rap, rap, rap.*

The doctor peeps out, "rubbing his old nightcap." Betty Foy did not care; and we are sure we would not, if it was a new Welsh wig the doctor rubbed. Well, she gets no tidings from the doctor, whom, as bad a messenger as her son, she forgets to send

To comfort poor old Susan Gale,

and passes on through the silent town, and on part of the road back, and yet she hears nothing, though like Fine-ear in the Fairy Tale, Mr. W. almost hears the grass growing. The owlets, "fond lovers," are shouting to each other, nearly, "*yet not quite hob nob.*" Betty now is "bent on deadly sin." She perceives a pond, but she *runs away* from it,

Lest she should drown herself therein.

This is the best prescription that could be given to any person smitten with the insanity of drowning himself.

Well, Betty at length *sits down;* no doubt, 'twas time for her to rest. 'Tis a wonder Mr. W. with his usual interesting minuteness did not detail what she did as well as what she thought. Well, she thinks of the sagacity of the pony, and after that, if she met with fifty ponds, she would run away from them all. We are now very near getting an entire history of Johnny's adventures; but the Muses, to whom Mr. W. has been bound

These fourteen years, by strong indentures,

deny him their aid. Heaven knows he would have served this double apprenticeship very ill, if he had nothing to show for it but *Johnny's Adventures,* and such like olios of folly, impertinence, and inanity. Still we are told what *Johnny might have* been doing, viz. he might ("*no unlikely thought!*") have been bringing a star home in his pocket, or, perhaps, like honest Jack when he hires a hack at Plymouth,

He's turn'd himself about,
His face unto his horse's tail—

or—or—or—but the Muses, most ungrateful hussies, whom Mr. W. "loved so well," and has served so long, reject his suit to tell *half* of what happened to *Johnny.*

But see with what a start of admiration the bard kens Johnny again. Behold the effective power of the passionate interrogatory:

Who's yon that near the waterfall
Sits upright on a feeding horse?

For a guinea, every reader knows as well as Mr. W. But there is a doubt whether every one will equally recognise him with that fervent warmth of the poet, with that mixed feeling of love and wonder so finely described in this line,

'Tis *Johnny! Johnny!* as I live.

To be sure, Betty knew him; she runs up and Johnny *burrs* as usual. This shows Mr. Wordsworth's great art in the epopœia; it shows his power in the creation of character—one of the highest prerogatives of the poet. *Johnny* is the only hero, with whom we are acquainted, that preserves consistency of action throughout—he is equally *unique* in the beginning, middle, and end. *He burrs.* He is "*simplex duntaxat et unus.*" The following lines, expressive of Betty's joy on the recovery of Johnny, are really unequalled, in the entire range of the poetry of feeling, for simple pathos, delicate feeling, and real knowledge of the human heart and of human actions, caused by such situations as that of Betty Foy!!

And now she's at the pony's tail,
And now she's at the pony's head,
On that side now and now on this;
* * * *
She's happy here, she's happy there,
She is *uneasy everywhere.*
* * * *
She pats the pony, *where or when*
She knows not, *happy Betty Foy!*

(*To be continued.*)

Northwest Region of the United States.

Washington, Nov. 23.

We were yesterday gratified with a few minutes conversation with captain J. R. Bell, who arrived in this city on Tuesday, from Cape Girardeau, in Missouri; which place he left on the 13th of October last. The information derived from him, was so

interesting to us, that we believe our readers will be pleased with some account of it.

Captain Bell was second in rank of an exploring expedition under the command of major Long, the objects of which were topographical and scientific information respecting the vast wilderness of country which stretches from the Council Bluffs, on the Missouri, to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, of which so little is yet known. The expedition being wholly pacific in its objects, consisted of some twenty soldiers only, and the following officers and artists, besides the two officers already mentioned; lieutenant Graham, lieutenant Swift, Dr. Say, Dr. James, and Messrs. Seymour and Peale, designers and painters.

The expedition sat out from the Council Bluffs, on the 6th of June, directing their course first to the Pawnee villages, on a fork of the La Platte, distant about one hundred and twenty miles from the Council Bluffs; and thence proceeded to the Rocky Mountains, distant about four hundred miles from the Pawnee villages. The interval is a rolling prairie country, of course destitute of hills and wood, so that the mountains are visible at the distance of one hundred and twenty miles. Time has not yet allowed a calculation of the observations, which were made as accurately as circumstances would allow, but it is supposed the greatest height of the ridge does not exceed the elevation of four thousand feet above the base of the mountain.

The expedition separated into two parties, near the point of the Arkansas designated on the maps as Pike's block-house.

The party under command of major Long, proceeded thence with a view to strike the head waters of Red river. But, it appears the maps which we have are very defective, the courses of the rivers being almost wholly conjectural, and often entirely fabulous. The expedition did not attain the object sought, because it was not to be found where it is laid down in the maps, and fell upon the waters of the Canadian fork of the Arkansas, which it pursued, and terminated its tour at Belle Point on the Arkansas, the post mentioned in the late message of the President to Congress, as being the advanced post of our cordon in that direction.

The other party under the command of captain Bell, proceeded down the Arkansas to Belle Point, which place they reached on the 9th September, after an absence of three months from the haunts of civilization.

Below the First Fork of the Arkansas, as it was named by Pike, they met several hunting parties of strange Indians, whose names even have rarely, if ever, been heard of before—belonging to the tribes of the Arrapahoes, the Kaskayas, the Kiawas, and the Chayennes. They are frequently, and perhaps at present, engaged in war with the Pawnees, Osages, and other tribes of whom we have some knowledge. Of the Indians met by our party, none have ever been into our settlements. They appeared to be wholly ignorant of the existence of such a people as those of the United States, or indeed of the existence of any people of a fairer complexion than the inhabitants of Mexico, or the adjacent Spanish provinces, of whom it appeared they had some knowledge. Being made to understand the existence of such a government, its power and its humane policy, as exemplified in its treatment of other Indian tribes, they expressed a great desire to be taken by the hand by the United States, and to place themselves under our protection.

The topographers, medical gentlemen, and painters, attached to this expedition have collected abundant materials for correcting some of the gross errors in the received geography of this part of our country, for making important additions to medical botany, and to the stock of our geological knowledge of our own territory; and the painters have many interesting and valuable sketches of the prominent features of the country. Besides possessing the government of such information as was indispensable to judicious arrangements for the support and protection of the American population penetrating into that country, this expedition ought, and we hope will, form the subject of one of the most attractive works ever published in this country. What struck us the most impressively in this brief narrative was, that some thousand miles on this side of our utmost western boundary, or, in other words, about half way between the Mississippi river and the Pacific ocean, an exploring party has met with several tribes of men, the aborigines and the proprietors of the soil of the country, who were ignorant, not only of the existence of the people of the United States, but of the existence of a race of white people? It gives us an awful idea of the magnificent extent of the domain of the republic.

[*Nat. Int.*

MR. EDGEWORTH'S CHILDREN.

When he was building, or carrying on experiments, or work of any sort, he con-

stantly explained to his children whatever was doing or to be done; and by questions adapted to their several ages and capacities, exercised their powers of observation, reasoning and invention. It often happened that trivial circumstances, by which the curiosity of the children had been excited, or experiments obvious to the senses, by which they had been interested, led afterwards to deeper reflection or to philosophical inquiries, suited to others in the family, of more advanced age and knowledge. The animation spread through the house by connecting children with all that is going on, and allowing them to join in thought or conversation with the grown-up people of the family, was highly useful; and thus both sympathy and emulation excited mental exertion in the most agreeable manner. In trying experiments, he always showed that he was intent upon learning the truth, not upon supporting his opinion. By the examples he thus set us of fairness, candour and patience, he trained the understanding to follow the best rules of philosophizing; and, what is of more consequence for the happiness of the individual, he taught his pupils to apply philosophy to the government of the temper. He knew so exactly the habits, powers and knowledge of his pupils, that he seldom failed in estimating what each could comprehend or accomplish. He saw at once where their difficulty lay, and knew how far to assist, how far to urge the mind, and where to leave it entirely to his own exertions. His patience in teaching was peculiarly meritorious, I may say surprising, in a man of his vivacity. He would sit quietly while a child was thinking of the answer to a question, without interrupting, or suffering it to be interrupted, and would let the pupil touch and quit the point repeatedly; and, without a leading observation or exclamation, he would wait till the steps of reasoning and invention were gone through, and were converted into certainties. This was sometimes trying to the patience of the bystanders, who often decided that the question was too difficult; when just at the moment that the silence and suspense could be no longer endured, his judgment has been justified, and his forbearance rewarded, by the child's giving a perfectly satisfactory answer. The tranquillizing effect of this patience was of great advantage. The pupil's mind became secure, not only of the point in question, but steady in the confidence of its future powers. It was his principle to excite the attention fully and strongly for a short time, and *never to go to the point of fatigue*. It often happens that a preceptor appears to have great influence for a time, and that this power suddenly dissolves. This is, and must be the case, wherever any sort of deception has been used. My father never used any artifice of any kind; and, consequently, he always possessed that confidence which is the reward of plain dealing; a confidence which increases in the pupil's mind with age, knowledge, and experience. I dwell on this reflection, certainly, with pride and pleasure, as far as it concerns my father and my beloved preceptor; but independently of private feelings, I trust that my strong assertion of this fact may be useful to the public. It may tend to convince parents that permanent influence over their children, that that influence which arises from grateful esteem, that which alone can endure from youth to age, may with certainty be obtained by PLAIN TRUTH. [*Edgeworth's Mem.*

SOCIETY IN IRELAND.

The middle classes of gentry in this part of Ireland, have within these last 30 or 40 years, improved much in their general mode of living, in manners, and in information. The whole style and tone of society are altered. The fashion has passed away of those desperately tiresome, long, formal dinners, which were given two or three times a year by each family in the country to their neighbours, where the company had more than they could eat, and twenty times more than they should drink; where the gentlemen could talk only of claret, horses, or dogs; and the ladies, only of dress or scandal: so that in the long hours, when they were left to their own discretion, after having examined and appraised each other's finery, many an absent neighbour's character was torn to pieces, merely for want of something to say or to do in the stupid circle. But now, the dreadful circle is no more; the chairs, which formerly could only take that form at which the firmest nerves must ever tremble, are allowed to stand, or turn in any way which may suit the convenience and pleasure of conversation. The gentlemen and ladies are not separated from the time dinner ends, till the midnight hour, when the carriages came to the door to carry off the bodies of the dead; or, till just sense enough being left, to find their way straight to the tea table, the gentlemen could only swallow

a hasty cup of cold coffee or stewed tea, and be carried off by their sleepy wives, happy if the power of reproach were lost in fatigue.

A taste for reading and literary conversation has been universally acquired and diffused. Literature has become, as my father long ago prophesied that it would become, fashionable; so that it is really necessary to all who would appear to advantage, even in the society of their country neighbours. A new generation of well informed young people has grown up, some educated in England, some in Ireland; while those of former days have been obliged to change their tone of real or affected contempt for *reading people*. They have been compelled, either to cultivate themselves in haste, to keep pace with their neighbours, or to assume at least the appearance of understanding, and of liking that which has become the mode.

About the year 1783 or 1784, my father happened to be present in the only great bookseller's shop then in Dublin, when a cargo of new books from London arrived, and among them the Reviews, or *the Review*, for the Monthly Review was the only one then sufficiently in circulation to make its way to Ireland. Of these, my father found, on inquiry, that not above a dozen, or twenty at the utmost, were ordered in this island. I am informed that more than two thousand Reviews are now taken in regularly. This may give some measure of the general increase of our taste for literature. The Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews are now to be found in the houses of most of our principal farmers; and all therein contained, and the positive, comparative, and superlative merits and demerits of Scott, Campbell, and lord Byron, are now as common table and tea table talk here, as in any part of the united empire.

The distinction, which about half a century ago was very strongly marked between the manners and mental cultivation of a few families of the highest class of the aristocracy in Ireland, and all of the secondary class of gentry, has now, by the diffusion of literature, and the general improvement in education, been softened so much, as to be effaced in its most striking points of contrast. What might be termed the monopoly of elegance and information, it is no longer possible to maintain. This may be mortifying in some few instances to pride; but good sense, to say nothing of benevolence or patriotism, will see ample compensation. [*Ibid.*

REV. SAMUEL BACON.

Amongst the ill-fated individuals who have fallen victims to the insidious and deadly climate of Africa, I notice the name of a dear and valued friend. The Reverend Samuel Bacon died at an English settlement called Cape Shilling, of a fever incident to the country. Conceiving that it would be interesting to the public, and, more especially, to the inhabitants of this place, to be in possession of some particulars relative to his life, which was one of extraordinary vicissitude, I have prepared for publication in your paper the following epitomized biography.

Samuel Bacon was born at Sturbridge, Massachusetts, on the 22d of July, 1782, and, after preparing himself in an under school, entered the university of Cambridge, of which he afterwards became a graduate. Quitting college, he launched out as do most of the enterprising young men of New England,

"In quest of fortune and a name."

He became principal and teacher of the languages in the Academy of Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and divided his leisure hours in conducting the Hive, a periodical paper, of some literary merit, and in the study of the law. From thence he came to this town, which he ever afterwards considered his home. Here, he became first teacher in the academy, an institution in considerable repute, and in the task of the instruction of youth, conciliated the good of all his pupils, and of every one that knew him. Becoming weary of a pursuit, which is at best irksome and tedious, he applied for a commission in the service of his country, and was appointed a lieutenant of marines. He was soon after appointed a quarter-master, with the rank of captain. In the year 1814, the first date which I am able satisfactorily to ascertain, he married the daughter of Jacob Barnitz, esq. of this town, who died in the succeeding year, leaving a son, who is still living, as the memento of their union and affections. Whilst yet an officer of marines, he resumed the study of the law with a distinguished advocate in the city of Washington, and was admitted to the bar in the metropolis. At the battle of Bladensburgh he was attached to commodore Barney's corps, and was the officer who managed the retreat. In the year 1815 or 16, he resigned, and returning to this place, commenced the practice of the law and received the appointment of deputy attorney general for York county. About this time he began to be seriously attentive

to things relating to his immortal welfare, and he evinced his sincerity by the best practical proofs. He laboured continually in the establishment of Sunday schools; and owing to his extraordinary exertions there were, at one time, in twenty-six schools of this county, about 2,000 scholars. He commenced a course of theological reading, whilst yet in the practice of the law, and upon the relinquishment of that profession, was ordained a deacon in the Episcopal church by Bishop White. He then travelled, as an agent of the Missionary and Bible Society, through this and the neighbouring states; soliciting donations, establishing Sunday schools, and endeavouring to do good in the great office in which he had been called. He was at length singled out by the heads of our government, as the agent of the United States to accompany the first adventure of the Colonization Society to their intended settlement on the African coast, where he finished his valuable life on the third day of May, 1820, aged 38 years.

Thus perished, in a land of savages, this good and amiable man; far removed from all that could smooth his passage to the grave, or uphold in the desponding hour of death.

History embalms the deeds of the great murderer,

"——— and Sculpture, in her turn
Gives bond in stone, and ever during brass,
To guard them, and t' immortalize their trust;"

but those who have fallen in the great work of human happiness, whose lives have been spent in supporting, not destroying, the being and happiness of their fellow creatures, such are quietly inurned and speedily forgotten. Mr. Bacon deserves a better fate. He should not be forgotten—his are

"——never with'ring wreaths, compared with which,
The laurels that a Cæsar reaps are weeds."

He will live in the remembrance of his pupils and friends, although no storied urn, no proud mausoleum marks the spot of his repose; and even the poor savage, as he strays over his sleeping dust, will drop a tear to the memory of one who was a friend to his race. ONE OF HIS PUPILS.

Village Museum.]

Poetry.

FINLAND SONG.

ADDRESSED BY A MOTHER TO HER CHILD.

Sweet bird of the meadow, oh, soft be thy rest!
Thy mother will wake thee at morn from thy nest;
She has made a soft nest, little redbreast, for thee,
Of the leaves of the birch and the moss of the tree.
Then sooth thee, sweet bird of my bosom, once more!
'Tis Sleep, little infant, that stands at the door.
"Where is the sweet babe," you may hear how he cries,
"Where is the sweet babe in his cradle that lies,
In his cradle, soft swaddled in vestments of down?
'Tis mine to watch o'er him till darkness be flown."

[*Dr. Leyden.*

THE EVENING HOUR.

By Mrs. Cornwell Baron Wilson.

This is the hour when memory wakes
Visions of joys that could not last;
This is the hour when fancy takes
A survey of the past!

She brings before the pensive mind
The hallow'd scenes of earlier years;
And friends who long have been consigned
To silence and to tears!

The few we liked—the *one* we *loved*—
A sacred band! come stealing on;
And many a form far hence remov'd,
And many a pleasure gone!

Friendships that now in death are hush'd;
And young affection's broken chain;
And hopes that fate too quickly crush'd,
In memory bloom again!

Few watch the fading gleams of day,
But muse on hopes as quickly flown!
Tint after tint, they died away,
Till *all* at last were gone!

This is the hour when fancy wreaths
Her spells round joys that could not last;
This is the hour when memory breathes
A sigh to pleasures past. [*New Mo. Mag. August*, 1820.

Foreign Literature and Science.

Compiled for the National Recorder.

A vessel has been constructed for the navigation of the Forth and Clyde canal, in Scotland, entirely of forged iron. It is larger and at the same time lighter than any of those employed. It will contain 200 passengers. [*Rev. Enc. Mai.* 1820.

The literature of Italy is rapidly increasing. The "Bibliotheca Italiana," edited by Acerbi, the author of Travels to the North Cape, announces that 700 cases of books, of 150 killogrammes each, are annually imported into Milan, from France, Switzerland and England, and without including the books which come from Germany and especially from the Austrian

states; and this commerce is principally in the way of exchange.

The number of books published in Lombardy alone, in 1819, amounted in value to more than 1,040,000 dollars. [*Ibid.*

The number of letters daily distributed by the post office of Paris is nearly 32,000, and of journals 1,800; while in London the amount of letters is 133,000, and of journals 26,000. This, according to the respective population of the two places, is in Paris one letter for 62 persons, and one journal for 380 readers; but in London one letter for 9 persons, and a journal for 43 readers. [*Ibid.*

A slide was erected in 1812 by Mr. Rupp, for the purpose of bringing down to the lake of Lucerne, the fine pine trees which grow upon Mount Pilatus. The wood was purchased by a company for £3000, and £9000 were expended in forming the slide. The length of the slide is about 44,000 English feet, or about 8¼ miles, and the difference of level of its two extremities is about 2600 feet. It is a wooden trough, about 5 feet broad and 4 deep, the bottom of which consists of three trees, the middle one being a little hollowed, and small rills of water are conducted into it to diminish friction. The declivity, at its commencement, is about 22½°, and Rupp calculated that a heavy body, not retarded by friction, would describe the whole length of the trough in 66 seconds. The large pines, with their branches and boughs cut off, are placed in the slide, and descending by their own gravity, they acquire such an impetus by their descent through the first part of the slide, that they perform their journey of 8¼ miles in the short space of 6 minutes, and under favourable circumstances, that is, in wet weather, in 3 minutes. Only one tree descends at a time, but by means of signals placed along the slide, another tree is launched as soon as its predecessor has plunged into the lake. Sometimes the moving trees spring or bolt out of the trough, and when this happens, they have been known to cut through trees in the neighbourhood, as if it had been done by an axe. When the trees reach the lake, they are formed into rafts, and floated down the Reuss into the Rhine.

The very singular phenomena described in Mr. Playfair's paper, arise from the diminution of friction, in consequence of an increase of velocity, and may be regarded as an experimental confirmation on a large scale, of the ingenious views of Coulomb, who had the merit of discovering this remarkable property of friction.

[*Ed. Phil. Journ.*

The Rev. Dr. Chalmers, minister of St. John's church, Glasgow, has in the press a volume of discourses on "The Application of Christianity to the commercial and ordinary Affairs of Life."

An Essay on the Genuineness, Authenticity, Credibility and Inspiration of the Holy Scriptures; including a Critical Investigation of the Contradictions which are asserted to exist in the Sacred Writings: by Thomas Hartwell Horne, M. A. of St. John's College, Cambridge—is preparing for publication.

Mr. Egan has in the press, a new and original work, entitled, "Life in London, or Day and Night Scenes of Jerry Hawthorn, Esq. in the Metropolis," with thirty-six plates from *real life.*

Shortly will be published, Travels in Georgia, Persia, Armenia, Ancient Babylonia, &c. during the Years 1817–1820, by Sir Robert Ker Porter.

Preparing for the press, Letters from Spain; giving an Account of the principal events from Ferdinand's return in 1814 until the Revolution: with Anecdotes and Observations on Public Characters, Religion, Literature and Manners.

In the press, Rome in the Nineteenth Century, in 3 vols.

New Publications.

The Life of Queen Anne Boleyn; by Miss Benger. Being the first of a series of historical female portraits.

The Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent. vol. ii.

A selection of Fifty Games from those played by the Automaton Chess Player, during its exhibition in 1820.

The Tour of Dr. Syntax in Paris, in search of the Grotesque; embellished with 18 humorous coloured plates. By Rowlandson and others.

The Queen's Magazine, Nos. 1 to 10. This work will be exclusively dedicated to her majesty's case.

A Prayer for our gracious Queen Caroline; recommended to be used in private families till such time as her majesty's name shall appear in its proper place, in the church service. Price 6*d.*

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

NATIONAL RECORDER.

Containing Essays upon subjects connected with Political Economy, Science, Literature, &c.; Papers read before the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia; a Record of passing Events; Selections from Foreign Magazines, &c. &c.

PUBLISHED, EVERY SATURDAY, BY LITTELL & HENRY, 74 S. SECOND STREET, AT FIVE DOLLARS PER ANN'

VOL. IV. Philadelphia, December 9, 1820. No. 24.

Some propositions relating to a reduction of the salary of members of Congress, have been submitted to the Senate. It is to be hoped that they will not occupy much time.

The committee of the Senate on the judiciary has been directed to inquire into the expediency of authorizing the President of the United States to commute the capital punishment of piracy for confinement in penitentiary houses, in such cases as he may deem expedient.

Monday last was the day appointed for the consideration of the resolutions to admit the state of Missouri into the union; but on motion of Mr. Eaton, of Tennessee, who stated that he was not then prepared to vote for either side of the question with an assurance of being right, and that he wanted time to consider whether what he was called upon to sanction was or was not contrary to the constitution he had sworn to observe—the question was postponed to Wednesday.

The communication upon the *disadvantages* of classical learning, has been long unnoticed. There is little necessity for any publication on that side of the question, as the general error in the United States is of a different nature from that here reprehended. The writer dislikes the study of the classics because the body of learned men in England have given the weight of their influence to the tory interests, and have joined with the administration in resisting the progress of freedom. He hates aristocracies, whether they are of birth, riches, or learning. We should not wish to alter the course of nature in any way, even when its advantages are less obvious than they are in the influence which is the necessary consequence of superior wealth, learning, talents or integrity. Provided every thing be free, there can no harm arise from the inevitable distinctions made by such circumstances.—The writer has, we think, succeeded better in his attempt to show, that it is not true, at least not universally, that we are more likely to preserve peace, by keeping up a vigorous state of preparation for war. This part of his essay is, however, much incorporated with his other speculations, and for that with other reasons, it has been decided not to publish any of it.

We observe in some of the papers, an appeal to the people, from the decision of Congress in relation to a claim made by a citizen of New Orleans, for indemnification for injury sustained by him during the attack of New Orleans. He draws a very animated picture of the distress into which the refusal of what he considers (whether rightly or not, we cannot now examine,) a just demand.

The great number of claims of this kind, makes it very difficult and almost impossible, that Congress should give them their due portion of attention.

Miscellany.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

SATURDAY SERMON.

No. 9.

"We assemble and meet together, to render thanks for the great benefits that we have received at his hands, to set forth his most worthy praise, to hear his most holy word, and to ask those things which are requisite and necessary, as well for the body as the soul."

When we enter the house set apart for the worship of God, we are surrounded on every hand by circumstances well adapted to assist our efforts to fix the mind upon the great truths of religion. The stillness that reigns over the large assembly, the reverent attention marked in so many countenances, show that the people have met together to consider a subject of vast importance; that the busy tumult of life has not effaced from our fellow men the awful truth that all must die. The sacred organ raises its notes of solemn harmony, and brings to our recollection the devout meditations of days long past, and the

many resolutions that we have made to amend our lives and purify our hearts. If we had previously been occupied with thoughts of the pleasures or business of life, the attention is gradually withdrawn from them, and directed to the "concerns that make for our eternal peace." We listen to the monitor within us, and as the influence of the world is for a time abstracted, can look upon ourselves in the true light, and find cause to wonder that we can have been so entirely taken up with the vanities and follies of life, as to forget in how short a time we must leave them all, and enter into a state of existence, of which we know little more than that its happiness or misery will depend upon the truth or falsity of our estimation of what is here placed before us. That we shall soon look with indifference and contempt upon many of the things most valued in the world, we now clearly perceive; anticipation diminishes their present power over us, and we already look at them with less eagerness of desire.

While such thoughts occupy our minds, the servant of God proclaims His presence, and calls upon us to confess our faults and ask forgiveness. We bow before the Throne of Grace with deep humility, and the proud consciousness of importance that we have felt among men, is lost in the abasement with which we recollect the many times when the meanest gratification was strong enough to make us forget the true end of life; and in the contrition with which we offer up prayer for the guidance and assistance of which we stand so much in need. Our hearts are softened by the recollection of the bounties of Providence, our resolutions of amendment are strengthened by a renewed consciousness of our unworthiness, and we are ready to give an undivided attention to the exhortations of the pulpit, with hearts prepared to acquiesce in the doctrines of the gospel.

What is it that now interrupts the assembly, and calls off our attention from such important subjects. The sound is heard of busy feet moving to and fro; the doors open and shut; there is a continual noise on every side. A stranger who should witness the scene for the first time would suppose that it must be for some purpose of the greatest importance that the worship of God is suspended. With what astonishment would he learn that it is done for the paltry consideration of a few pence! And if, upon further inquiry, he were told, that it is not of rare occurrence, but that whenever we assemble and meet together for the purposes mentioned in the extract from the Liturgy, every one of the congregation is thus called upon, he would find it difficult to reconcile the information with the civilized state of society. There are many whom no frequency of its repetition will make insensible to this outrage on propriety; and it is respectfully submitted to the consideration of the clergy whether they are not in duty bound to use their influence to procure the abolition of so barbarous a practice. Ought the trifling amount collected in our churches to be weighed against the indecency, I had almost said the impiety, of such an interruption of the worship of the Most High?

YORICK.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

CHARACTER OF CHARLES JAMES FOX.

The following character of this eminent statesman, delineated with so much truth, force and discrimination, is from the masterly hand of *Sir James Macintosh*, one of the most accomplished, eloquent and philosophical orators of the present day.

Mr. Fox united, in a most remarkable degree, the seemingly repugnant characters of the mildest of men, and the most vehement of orators. In private life he was gentle, modest, placable, kind, of simple manners, and so averse from dogmatism, as to be not only unostentatious, but even something inactive in conversation. His superiority was never felt but in the instruction which he imparted, or in the attention which his generous preference usually directed to the more obscure members of the company. The simplicity of his manners was far from excluding that perfect urbanity and amenity which flowed still more from the mildness of his nature, than from familiar intercourse with the most polished society of Europe. The pleasantry, perhaps, of no man of wit, had so unlaboured an appearance. It seemed rather to escape from his mind, than to be produced by it. He had lived on the most intimate terms with all his contemporaries distinguished by wit, politeness, or philosophy, or learning, or the talents of public life. In the course of thirty years he had known almost every man in Europe, whose intercourse could strengthen, or enrich, or polish the mind. His own literature was various and elegant. In classical erudition, which by the custom of England is more peculiarly called learning he was inferior to few professed scholars

Like all men of genius, he delighted to take refuge in poetry, from the vulgarity and irritation of business. His own verses were easy and pleasant, and might have claimed no low place among those which the French call *vers de société*. The poetical character of his mind was displayed by his extraordinary partiality for the poetry of the two most poetical nations, or at least languages of the west, those of the Greeks and of the Italians. He disliked political conversation, and never willingly took any part in it.

To speak of him justly as an orator would require a long essay. Every where natural, he carried into public something of that simple and negligent exterior which belonged to him in private. When he began to speak, a common observer might have thought him awkward; and even a consummate judge could only have been struck with the exquisite justness of his ideas, and the transparent simplicity of his manners. But no sooner had he spoken for some time, than he was changed into another being. He forgot himself and every thing around him. He thought only of his subject. His genius warmed and kindled as he went on. He darted fire into his audience. Torrents of impetuous eloquence swept along their feelings and convictions. He certainly possessed above all moderns, that union of reason, simplicity, and vehemence, which formed the prince of orators. He was the most Demosthenian speaker since the days of Demosthenes. "I knew him," says Mr. Burke, in a pamphlet written after their unhappy difference, "when he was nineteen; since which he has risen, by slow degrees, to be the most brilliant and accomplished debater the world ever saw."

The quiet dignity of a mind roused only by great objects, the absence of petty bustle, the contempt of show, the abhorrence of intrigue, the plainness and downrightness, and the thorough good-nature which distinguished Mr. Fox, seem to render him no unfit representative of the old English character, which, if it ever changed, we should be sanguine indeed to expect to see it succeeded by a better. The simplicity of his character inspired confidence, the ardour of his eloquence roused enthusiasm, and the gentleness of his manners invited friendship. "I admired," says Mr. Gibbon, after describing a day passed with him at Lausanne, "the powers of a superior man, as they are blended in his attractive character, with all the softness and simplicity of a child: no human being was ever more free from any taint of malignity, vanity, or falsehood."

The measures which he supported or opposed may divide the opinion of posterity, as they have divided those of the present age. But he will most certainly command the unanimous reverence of future generations, by his pure sentiments towards the commonwealth, by his zeal for the civil and religious rights of all men, by his liberal principles, favourable to mild government, to the unfettered exercise of the human faculties, and the progressive civilization of mankind; by his ardent love for a country of which the well-being and greatness were, indeed, inseparable from his own glory; and by his profound reverence for that free constitution, which he was universally admitted to understand better than any other man of his age, both in an actually legal, and in a comprehensive philosophical sense.

From the New Monthly Magazine.

Lake School of Poetry—Mr. Wordsworth.

(Continued from p. 363.)

After this unutterable joy, so unutterably described, Betty's short address, when, after the paroxysm of her feelings had subsided, she regained the power of utterance,

> "Oh! *Johnny* never mind the *doctor*,
> You've done your best, and that is all—"

is admirably fine! There might be an essay written on the beauty, tenderness, and simplicity of it. To see its propriety it must be thus analyzed: Johnny was sent for the doctor; he loitered and *burred* away; did not bring the doctor; caused the most heart-rending uneasiness to Betty Foy; might have been the death of poor Susan Gale. It was natural from all this, that Betty might speak harshly to Johnny about the doctor. Some writers would make her do so; but Mr. W. with a deeper insight into the workings of the heart, does otherwise. She found her son whom she thought lost; her sudden joy banishes all the anxiety of her recent sorrows, and the true heart of the mother cries out with inexpressible truth and tenderness,

> Oh! Johnny never mind the doctor;

and in the next line, with more accuracy of feeling, not only palliates, but strives to approve of his conduct—

> You've done your best, and that is all.

She says no more; another word would spoil it.

Now Betty and Johnny and the pony, returning home, meet with—whom?

> Who is it but old Susan Gale,

who comes hobbling up the road after them, being cured by the anxiety of her mind. Thus the poet describes it:

> And as her mind grew worse and worse,
> Her body it grew better.

Ye villagers, learn from all this to see the folly of engaging a doctor. Send a fool for him, and ye save the fees—it is enough. Let him not come, and ye are perfectly cured by taking a walk of a frosty night out of your warm bed in the height of a fever. The four travellers now wending homewards, Johnny tells all his adventures very briefly, "like a traveller bold."

> (His very words I give to you)
> "The cocks did crow *to-whoo, to-whoo,*
> And the sun did shine so cold."

A good conception, in sooth, of idiotism, the cocks being the owls, that Johnny was listening to all night, and the sun the moon, which

> —No doubt too he had seen,
> For in the moonlight he had been
> From eight o'clock to five.

No doubt indeed! if Johnny were not stone blind. Thus ends "*The Idiot Boy,*" "with the owls," for Mr. W.

> With the owls began his song,
> And with the owls must end.

Very right. It was a song as long, drawling, and disagreeable as the owlet's hoot; they should cease their notes together. Yet the mention excites another association in the mind. The owl is Minerva's bird. Why should a tissue of idiotry and folly begin or end with any thing that could serve for an emblem of wisdom. *Betty Foy* is a happy name for a heroine. Who can object to it? Does not *Betty Foy* sound as well as *Lallah Rookh?* Will it not start a spirit as soon as Lallah Rookh? Yes, it will; but it will be the spirit of ridicule.

I think this enough to prove, what I would wish to prevent, the danger the poetical taste of this country is in, if such a system of poetry be tolerated; though with minds of a natural taste, or formed on just principles, it could be in no danger. I think I need analyze no more of these tuneful sillinesses. Betty Foy was specimen enough of folly and false simplicity—"*ex uno disce omnes.*" Alice Fell, or her "wretched rag," which seems not to be a "*purpureus pannus;*" and "Goody Blake and Harry Gill" are really worth reading for a little information; for instance, a man can get a knowledge why coals are dear, and that they are so in Dorsetshire,

> For they come far by wind and tide.

As also a man may learn, if he does not close his eyes, that he may have a chance of distinguishing objects:

> And any man, who pass'd her door,
> Might see how poor a hut she had.

As also that two poor old women live together in Dorsetshire in one small cottage, for the advantage

> By the same fire to boil their pottage.

This is all we could glean from Harry Gill's chattering and blankets, &c. &c. &c. except that industrious farmers should allow all the crones and gypsies in the country to tear down their hedges, made for the preservation of their crops and pasturage, lest their teeth should "chatter, chatter, chatter, still," and lest all the wool in Great Britain should prove insufficient to keep them warm. A very pretty moral indeed!

I will quote the first stanza as a specimen of this precious production.

> Oh! what's the matter? what's the matter?
> What is't, that ails young Henry Gill.
> That evermore his teeth they chatter,
> *Chatter, chatter, chatter still.*
> Of waistcoats Harry has no lack,
> Good duffle gray, and flannel fine,
> He has a blanket on his back,
> And coats enough to smother nine.

This may be poetry—if it be so, and if it be with such Mr. W. thinks himself a "Hannibal among the Alps," cutting his own road into the public taste, all I will add is, it is with stuff sourer than *vinegar* itself. But it is not for *such* Mr. W. is admired *now*, or will be so hereafter: it is for something else he is deservedly admired, and must be always increasing in admiration. I will have the vanity to say few can feel Mr. Wordsworth's beauties more justly, or perhaps more intensely than I do, or appreciate them more highly; but I am not blind to his faults from my admiration of his excellencies. What I have done, I have done for a good purpose, unbiassed by any literary prejudice or base personality. The specimens I have chosen I think sufficient to point out his most glaring absurdities; though his "*White Doe*" would give rather a pleasant chase to the *stag hounds* of criticism, and his *Pedlar* might be convicted of a great many *contraband commodities* both in poetry and philosophy; while in

Peter Bell, his Pegasus seems to be haltered to the *wagon*.

We cannot well conceive either by what association of curious thinking Mr. Wordsworth can liken a daisy in one place to Saint Peter or Saint Paul, which he does in thus addressing that flower:

> Thou wanderest the wide world about,
> Uncheck'd by pride or scrupulous doubt,
> With friends to greet thee, or without
> Yet pleased and willing;
> Meek yielding to the occasions call,
> And all things suffering from all,
> Thy *function apostolical*
> In peace fulfilling.

And in another place to Polyphemus! By the way, this daisy puts me in mind of Burns. Let the *Lakers* learn true simplicity from him. His "Mountain Daisy" is worth all the daisies in Westmoreland; nay it and its little "nebor" lark are worth all the "Gardens of Gul," with all the enamoured bulbuls, in the entire range of European Orientalism.

The chief reason, I think, of these fanciful and ridiculous oddities appearing so often in Mr. W. and his brethren of the Lakes, is, that they write down every foolish and fantastical idea that flits over a poetical mind—in fine, every idea, good, bad, or indifferent, that occurs to them from the most distant affinities, the most of which should have been only for a moment laughed at by themselves and then forgotten, and not be registered as sillinesses to be laughed at by a nation. The greatest minds may unbend and trifle in private; but trifling will never contribute to the enhancement of poetical or public character. I could quote a great many of these fanciful follies, but I abstain. There is one curious thought which struck me very much; it may be admired at first sight, but if looked into it will be discovered to be very incongruous, calling an infant's smiles "*feelers of love*." What affinity is there between a child's innocent seraph smiles and the disgusting members of some loathed reptile or insect?

There is a great propensity to such thoughts in the Lake poetry. Mr. Wordsworth tells us, it is in the fine arts, as in the affairs of life, and as in the scriptural apothegm, no man can obey two masters. Lord Byron tells us openly, we "must not set up Coleridge, Wordsworth, Southey." And I think a little "*Anthropomorphitism*," or some sort of *morphitism*, is necessary for our heathen imaginations, ere we can worship them. We cannot adore that *unknown* poetical *god*, living in the cloudy imaginations of the bards of the Lakes. If we must be made intellectual Ixions of—to embrace a cloud—we must at least be tempted by the phantom of Juno. Mr. Wordsworth has gone far to prove that every great and original mind must create that taste by which its productions are to be appreciated and admired. We will allow that Mr. Wordsworth is a master spirit, and has given a tone to the most of the poetical writings of the age. We should be glad to see his intuitive knowledge of the human heart, his holy communion between the phenomena of the external universe and the internal feelings, when it does not dive into mysticism, imitated; but we must protest against the taste, that would adopt his idiotry, his affectation, his riddling and ridiculous rusticity. We (I mean the literary and poetical world, assured of their sameness of thinking on this subject,) should be sorry to find the sweet chirpings of the grasshoppers, or the divine harmonies of the nightingales of the English poesy, turned into the hoarse and ominous croakings of *Winandermere frogs*.

Now one word to the School in general, and I have done. Let them beware of that inanity, affectation, babyism, and adopted meanness, which are well calculated "*to humble*" but not "to humanize, purify, or exalt" the human heart, in the minor species of their poetry, and they will be the most pleasing pastoral writers that ever piped on the Arcadian reed. Let them beware of mysticism in the higher order, and we shall see poetry that can claim the true title of sublimity, and not that wild and wayward mysticism, which like Wordsworth's description of the cuckoo, is but "*a wandering voice*," "*a thing invisible*," "*a mystery*," a mystery indeed, so obscure, that we often have not even the shadow, much less the substance of sense; and striving as they do each to outrun the other in this obscurity, they often remind us of those magicians who had lost their shadows. We hear the devil often amused himself in hunting the students of magic, and he often ran them so close, that though at the end perhaps he missed the person of the hindmost, yet he sometimes *nicked* their shadows, and those who lost their shadows were generally accounted the best magicians; so among the *Lakers*, they are generally the best who soar in the undefined and interminable region of abstraction, and who have lost in the vacuum not only their substance but their shadows. In the race of obscurity, their motto seems to be, on the plan of the magicians—The devil take the hindmost!

THE PROMPTER—NO. XII.

TO THE PROMPTER.

"Sir—How should I work it?"

Are you a parent? Then you have a hard task to be both the *friend* and the *master* of your children; and if you are not *both, you do not work it right.* Sometimes you are the fond indulgent parent—nothing is too good for the darling; he may pout and strike, or kick over the tea-kettle, cups and glasses; and you would just moderately say, "why, Billy, how you behave; that is not pretty; I shall not love you for that." At other times you are in a pet, and the child by *accident*, in mere play, or in attempting to drink, lets fall a tumbler, or a tea-cup; you fly at him, and fall on him like a mastiff, and cuff his ears, and shake him to a jelly. In the *first* case you are the *weak silly dupe* of your child; in the *last*, you are the *tyrant*, the *madman;* thus *you do not work it right.* Hear what the Prompter says. Never strike your child *in a passion;* never punish him for accidental mischief; never *fail* to punish him for *obstinate disobedience*, or *wilful mischief*—and, a word to you in particular, when you have *real cause* to correct him, never cease, till his temper gives way, and he becomes *really submissive.* A blow or two only raises his anger, and increases wilful obstinacy; if you quit him then, you do hurt rather than good—you make your child worse. But if you continue to apply the rod, till his mind bends and softens down into humble supplication, believe me, that child will rarely, or never, want a second correction; the Prompter has tried it in repeated instances.

But, say some folks, the rod should be sparingly used. True—but as most people use it, one correction only makes way for another, and frequent whippings harden the child till they have no effect. Now mind the Prompter—*two simple rules*, if observed, will prevent this. 1st. *Never punish a child when he does not deserve it.* 2d. *When he does deserve it, make the first punishment* EFFECTUAL. If you strike a child for *accidental* mischief, or for what he does *ignorantly*, or in *good humour*, the child is not conscious he has done wrong—he is *grieved* at first—if such punishment is frequent, it excites indignation—he is angry with his parent, and thinks him cruel—then correction does more hurt than good.

I sincerely believe, that *nine* times out of *ten*, the bad conduct of children is owing to parents! yet parents father most of it upon Adam and the devil.

Parents then *do not work it right*—They work it thus—A child wants an apple—and a child is governed by *appetite*, not by *reason*—the parent says, *he must not have it;* but he says it with a simple, unmeaning tone of voice, that leaves no impression on the child—The child cries for the apple: The parent is angry, and tells him he sha'nt have the apple; the child bawls, and perhaps strikes his little, brother, or throws down a glass in anger—At last the parent is tired with the noise, and to appease the child, gives him the apple. *Does this parent work it right?* So far from it, that he loses the little authority he had over the child—the order of things is changed—the child is the *master;* and when the child has been master a few months, you may as well break his *neck* as his *will.* A thousand lashes on a young *master's* back will not do so much as one *decisive command*, before he becomes *master* of his parents.

Now listen to my advice. The idea is *new.* A child does not regard so much *what* a parent says, as *how* he says it. A child looks at his parent's eye when he speaks—and then he reads intuitively *what* his parent means, and *how much* he means. If a parent speaks with *an air of indifference, without emphasis*, or looks another way when he speaks, the child pays little or no regard to what he says. (I speak of a young child, over whom a parent has not yet established an authority.) But if a parent, when he commands a child to do or not to do, looks at him with the *eye of command*, and speaks with a tone and air of decision and authority, the child is impressed with this *manner* of commanding, and will seldom venture to disobey. A steady, uniform authority of the kind, which never varies from its purpose, which never gives way to the caprices or appetites of children, which carries every command *into effect*, will prevent the necessity of a rod. I am bold to say, that a parent who has this steady authority, will never have occasion to correct a child of *common sensibility;* and *never but once*, a child of *uncommon obstinacy. This is the way every parent and guardian should work it.*

But the common practice is, for the parent to throw away his own authority and become the slave of his children; and when the young *masters* grow headstrong, and commit all manner of mischief, then the parent complains of old Adam, origi-

nal sin and the devil—and swears he'll drive the devil out, or he'll *know the reason why*. Then for the *fist* and the *rod*.

NUMBER XIII.

It is better to borrow than to buy.

So *says* my correspondent, but he *thinks* as I do. Yes, if you want a thing but *once* in your life, it is better to borrow than to buy. But think of *borrowing* the instruments of *every day*, or of *professional* business! Yes, it is cheaper to *borrow* one thousand dollars than to *earn* it;—but look ye, when a man has borrowed the money, how much richer is he for it? It is easier to go *once* to a neighbour's for a shovel, than to work two days to buy it; but alack, a farmer wants a shovel a great many times in a year; and the trouble of going after it and returning it, is *interest* on the worth of it; yes, *double interest*. Now look ye to this, my friend, if a man work two days for a shovel, he earns it, and he has a shovel of his *own*—he is *richer*, by the whole value of a shovel. But when he goes to borrow it, he labours and gets *nothing*—he may spend a week's time in *borrowing*, but where is his shovel when he is done? Does he work it *right?*

TO THE PROMPTER.

Sir—Suppose public officers to be unfaithful, and some thousands of pounds in arrear: Or, suppose men in the first offices of government, act like mere old women—*do they work it right?*

Tom Querist.

The Prompter thinks they do not—but they do not work it half so *wrong* as those who fill offices with *such men*.

NUMBER XIV.

Come, we'll take the t'other sip.

The grog drinker is not the only man who takes the t'other sip. The drone, the sluggard opens his eyes upon the morning dawn—he stretches—rolls over—gapes—feels drowsy—says it is time enough yet—hugs the pillow, and takes the t'other sip. He naps away a precious hour or two, when he might have earned his breakfast.

The gamester takes a hand at whist in the evening—a hand or two can do no harm—it is an amusement—a quarter of a dollar a corner is a trifle—his mind is engaged—if he has *lost* a game, he must play another to *win*—if he has won, he hopes to win again—he must take the t'other sip—and the t'other—the bell rings nine o'clock—but *one more* hand can do no harm—who would go to bed with the chickens? The clock strikes *twelve*—but *one* more hand and I positively go—the clock strikes *one*—he starts—damns his luck—but the next evening he'll take another sip—he swears he'll recover what he has lost—he marches home, when not an animal should be awake, but owls and rats and thieves.

The poor man, with a score of barefooted children, breadless and naked, works hard for a little meat to silence the demands of hunger, and a little wood to warm their naked limbs. But there is a lottery—*a prize of one thousand dollars!*—and not two blanks to a prize! yes, *one prize* that is worth having, among *nine thousand* tickets! Glorious chance! *nine thousand* to *one* against him! but a ticket he must have. Four or five days labour, the subsistence of several days, must be bartered for a ticket! *nine thousand* to *one* against him! Is this all? No, no. He is anxious for good fortune—he must stand by and see the drawing—a week more lost—time is money—the price of a ticket is *two* dollars, and it costs him *four*. The wheel of fortune rolls, and rolls and rolls him up——*a blank*. But like the grog drinker, who takes the other sip, he must try his luck again. Luckless man! *nine thousand* to *one*, is odds *against* him. *One certainty* is better than a *thousand* lotteries, where *some thousands* of probabilities are against a man.

But, must we discourage lotteries, when public utility is the object? No. Let every one buy tickets, who is able to pay a tax to the amount of the price.

Suppose a poor man saves enough out of his usual grog expenses to buy a ticket. This is very well—but it would be better to save the money to buy bread and a pair of shoes for a shoeless boy.

Extracts from the last Edinburgh Review.

"Mr. Lewis Burckhardt was a young Swiss, employed by the African Association to make discoveries in that country. He is recently dead; and the society are now publishing the result of his labours. Thoroughly aware that a great part of the failures of African discoveries proceeded from their want of previous education in the customs, manners, and languages of the east, Mr. Burckhardt prepared himself, by the study of Arabic, by a residence of six years in Syria and Egypt, by journies in Nubia, Palestine, in Arabia, and in the countries between Egypt and the Red sea, for his great purpose of penetrating into

the heart of Africa. His knowledge of Arabic and the Koran were so great, that after the severest examination by doctors of the Mahometan law, appointed for that express purpose by Mohammed Ali, pacha of Egypt, he was pronounced to be not only a real, but a very learned Mahometan. But as his skill in oriental manners and languages improved, his constitution became impaired; and he became at last the victim of a tour in Arabia; dying better qualified than any other traveller hitherto employed by the association for the purpose of discovery in Africa."

"Some of his excursions were very unfortunate—twice, in spite of solemn bargains with shekhs and high blooded Arabs, he is deserted and pillaged in the desert. In one of these instances, the robbers leave him nothing but his breeches. These he thought tolerably secure; but he was not yet sufficiently acquainted with the manners and customs of the east. A female Arab met him with these breeches; and a very serious conflict for them ensued between the parties. The association have not stated the result.

"We are much struck by the perpetual miseries to which this traveller is subjected. In all his journies, he seems kick'd and cuff'd by the whole party, and subjected to the grossest contempt and derision, for the appearance of poverty he always thought it prudent to assume. His system was, that the less display of wealth a man makes in the east, the safer he is. This may be true enough in general; but when he travelled with a caravan containing merchants who had ten or twelve camels, and twenty or thirty slaves each, he might surely have ventured on the display of one camel, and one or two slaves; for in one journey he travels upon an ass, without a slave; and has in consequence his own wood to cut, his water skins to fill, and his supper to dress. He receives as much respect, therefore, as a man would do who was to rub down his own horse in England; and is well nigh overpowered by the great and unnecessary fatigues to which this violent economy subjects him. We do not remember that other travellers in Africa, proceeding with caravans, have found it necessary to affect such an extreme state of pauperism; and Mr. Burckhardt himself admits, that Ali Bey, the pretended Arabian, penetrated every where in the east by the very opposite system of magnificence and profusion, even though he was suspected not to be a Mussulman by the natives themselves."

"In his visit to the peninsula of Mount Sinai, Mr. Burckhardt meets with a substance which he considers to be the same as the manna mentioned in the books of Moses.

"'A botanist would find a rich harvest in these high regions, in the most elevated parts of which, a variety of sweet scented herbs grow. The Bedouins collect to this day the manna, under the very same circumstances described in the books of Moses. Whenever the rains have been plentiful during the winter, it drops abundantly from the tamarisk (in Arabic, Tarfa); a tree very common in the Syrian and Arabian deserts, but producing, as far as I know, no manna any where else. They gather it before sunrise, because, if left in the sun, it melts; its taste is very sweet, much resembling honey; they use it as we do sugar, principally in their dishes composed of flour. When purified over the fire, it keeps for many months; the quantity collected is inconsiderable, because it is exclusively the produce of the Tarfa, which tree is met with only in a few vallies at the foot of the highest granite chain. The inhabitants of the peninsula, amounting to almost four thousand, complain of the want of rain and of pasturage: the state of the country must therefore be much altered from what it was in the time of Moses, when all the tribes of Beni Israel found food here for their cattle.'"

The education committee of the House of Commons, addressed queries to all the parochial clergy of England and Wales, respecting the state of education. So ready was their compliance with the request for information, that the chairman of the committee received between two and three thousand letters in one day.

The Edinburgh reviewers state, that they "believe, that lawyers have in most enlightened countries, succeeded to no little portion of the sway once enjoyed by their brethren, the priests."

"The British and Foreign School Society, has more than once depended for its existence upon the extraordinary exertions of two or three individuals like Joseph Fox and William Allen (if indeed, beside themselves, any such are to be found) who have risked their fortunes, and pledged their credit for the common good, with a generous enthusiasm of which there is perhaps no other example on record.

"No one can hear of the labours encountered by William Allen in his long and perilous journies in the east and elsewhere, for the purpose of propagating the new method, without feelings of the deepest gratitude. He is a man almost without parallel for genuine philanthropy, in an age of benevolence."

GOVERNORS

In the different states, are chosen as follows:

New Hampshire, annually, in March, by the people.

Massachusetts, annually, in April, by the people.

Maine, annually, in January, by the people.

Rhode Island, annually, by the people, though this state retains its original charter of 1663.

Connecticut, annually, in April, by the people.

Vermont, annually, in September, by the people.

New York, once in three years, in April, by the people.

New Jersey, annually, by the council and assembly.

Pennsylvania, once in three years, in October, by the people.

Delaware, once in three years, in October, by the people.

Maryland, annually, in December, by the general assembly.

Virginia, annually, by joint ballot of the general assembly.

North Carolina, annually, "by the Senate and House of Commons."

South Carolina, once in two years, by the "Senate and House of Representatives."

Georgia, once in two years, by the general assembly.

Louisiana, once in four years, by the people.

Kentucky, once in four years, by the people.

Ohio, once in two years, by the people.

Tennessee, once in two years, by the people.

Mississippi, once in two years, by the people.

Indiana, once in three years, by the people.

Alabama, once in two years, by the people.

From which we find that ten states elect their governor annually, six once in two years, four once in three years, three once in four years—23 states; and that the *people* have a direct *voice* in the election, in all the states, except six. [*Bost. Gaz.*

New Orleans, October 20.

A man of an uncouth aspect, with a long bushy red beard, dressed in coarse apparel, and with a leathern belt girded round his loins, has for some time past been preaching in the streets of our city, announcing himself to be the prophet Elijah, calling upon his hearers to repent, and predicting the day of judgment to be close at hand!

FROM THE NEW YORK STATESMAN.

MATHEMATICAL QUESTION.

Multiply the number 274 by the principal; the product, by the number of *days* for which interest is required. Multiply this second product by the rate per cent. Cast off the *five* right hand figures of the last product, and the remainder will be dollars and cents. E. G. required the interest of 752 dollars from the 1st February to the 11th May (inclusive), 1820, seven per cent.

$274 \times 752 = 206048 \times 101 = 20810848 \times 7 =$ $14 56 cts. 7 mills.

Quære.—Why does this apparently *arbitrary* number (274), possess this power; and why, by the multiplication of the rate per cent. &c. into the products, does the last product contain integers and decimals?

Agriculture.

A Discourse read before the Essex Agricultural Society, in Massachusetts, February 21, 1820; *suggesting some improvements in the agriculture of the county. By Timothy Pickering, president of the society.*

(Continued from p. 359.)

To the preceding account of cultivating the mangel wurtzel, I will subjoin a few remarks.

In this mode it is intended that every two feet of ground should bear one plant: and as an acre contains 43,560 square feet, there will be half of that number of plants on an acre, and the roots must weigh nearly five pounds each, on an average to yield forty-eight tons. The land must indeed be strong to produce so heavy a crop. If our lands, enriched and prepared in the best manner conveniently in our power, can be made to yield half as much, we shall have reason to be satisfied: espe-

cially as the mangel wurtzel, quantity for quantity, contains more than twice as much nutritive matter as the ruta baga, and even fifty per cent. more than carrots; according to the experiments (by analysis) of a celebrated English chemist, Sir Humphrey Davy, which he stated to the British Board of Agriculture. These experiments were made with the red and white beets; but it is presumed that the mangel wurtzel produces as much nutriment as any other beet.

Instead of *six* it may be advisable to apply at least *twelve* cubic yards (that is six such cartloads as were before mentioned) of manure to an acre; and to distribute the same in deep furrows four feet apart. This would give four square feet of ground to each plant, the plants being at a foot distance one from another in the rows: and the rows four feet apart, would admit the use of the common horse-plough in their cultivation.

Carrots and the mangel wurtzel possess one eminent advantage: that they are not, to my knowledge, annoyed by insects at any period of their growth. Whereas the ruta baga and other turnips while in the seed leaf, are injured (in England whole fields are often destroyed) by a small black fly: and the ruta baga (like cabbages) when far advanced in growth, is sometimes infested, and in dry seasons half ruined, by plant-lice; as was my small crop in 1818.

The mangel wurtzel also possesses one peculiar advantage above all other root crops, that as soon as the tops, or leaves, are full grown, they may be stripped off (leaving only the small heart-leaves uninjured) and given to cattle and swine. This stripping may be repeated once or twice: and it is said that the roots thrive better for the stripping. If not stripped off, many of the under leaves perish.—The leaves are pronounced excellent for increasing the richness and quantity of milk in cows; and so are calculated to supply the deficiency of herbage in the common pastures, which generally fail, more or less, by the beginning of August. An acre twice stripped will yield several tons of leaves.

THE RUTA BAGA. This root may be cultivated in the manner just described for the mangel wurtzel; the ground being prepared in the same manner. In England, they appear to be most commonly grown in rows twenty-seven inches apart, with the plants at a foot distance in the rows. But William Cobbett, who in a small book, published in New York, has minutely described his own practice, both in England and America, asserts, that the largest crops are attainable by growing the ruta baga in rows four feet apart, with the plants about ten inches or a foot distant from each other in the rows: and that in this mode of culture he has raised, in England, thirty tons to the acre.

For this mode of culture, the manure, being deposited in furrows four feet apart, is covered by four back furrows, two on the one side and two on the other, of each line of manure; by which little ridges are formed; and if the ploughing be deep (as it ought to be) there will be a deep gutter between every two ridges.—The tops of the ridges being made fine with a light harrow, or with rakes, the seeds are sown with a drilling machine; or by hand, which Mr. Cobbett says he prefers to a drill. Two men sowed for him seven acres in three days, using about four pounds of seed, in this manner: a man went along by the side of each ridge, and put down two or three seeds in places at about ten inches from each other, just drawing a little earth over, and *pressing it on the seed*, in order to make it vegetate quickly, before the earth became too dry. But, he adds, the seven acres might have been sown by one man in a day, by just scattering the seeds along on the top of the ridge, where they might have been buried with a rake, and pressed down with a spade or shovel, or other flat instrument. But he used a light roller, to take two ridges at once, the horse walking in the gutter between.

The time of sowing the seeds must vary with the climate. On Long Island (State of New York) Mr. Cobbett's trials of one year led him to prefer the 26th of June: but in our own county, I would not pass the middle of that month. Indeed I think it expedient (in order to ascertain the fittest time) to commence sowing the seed as soon as the ground can be prepared after the planting of Indian corn, and to continue to sow, in small plots, weekly, until the middle of June.

As soon as the plants are fairly up, hoes and fingers are to be used, taking out all the plants but one in each ten or twelve inches. As soon as weeds appear, hoeing is to commence, hoeing the tops of the ridges to the width of about six inches, showing the plants distinct and clean. Then the plough is introduced, taking a furrow from the side of one ridge, going up the field, a furrow from the other ridge coming down, then another furrow from the same side of the first ridge going up, and another furrow from the same side of

the other ridge coming down. In taking away the last two furrows, you go within three inches of the turnip plants. Thus a ridge is formed over the original gutter. The next process is, to turn these furrows back again to the turnips. This hoeing and ploughing is to be repeated, when the appearance of the weeds requires it; and afterwards, the few weeds which may rise are to be hoed or pulled up. In this way Mr. Cobbett thinks a thousand bushels of ruta baga may be raised on an acre that will yield fifty bushels of Indian corn.

In describing the culture of the mangel wurtzel, transplanting was mentioned, to fill vacant places. The same may be practised with the ruta baga. But unless those vacant spots be dug afresh, the transplanted roots will be much inferior to their untransplanted neighbours; as I found in my last year's experiment. And Mr. Cobbett mentions the like difference in his practice. At the same time he strongly recommends the raising of the ruta baga, by *transplanting*, for *entire crops*, as far preferable to the sowing of the seeds, and letting the plants grow where their seeds first vegetated. But then he considers it indispensable to perform this transplanting *on ground fresh ploughed*. And by sowing the seeds in beds to raise plants, as we do for cabbages, a month's more time is allowed to prepare the ground for their reception. In the work of transplanting, the plain dibble before described is a necessary instrument. The hole made by it must be fully as deep as the length of the root; and this being introduced (taking care in putting it into the hole not to bend its point) the dibble is thrust down by its side, and by a dexterous twist, or circular motion of the hand, the earth is pressed close against the root, in its whole length, The largest crop of ruta baga he ever raised in England, Mr. Cobbett says, was by transplanting, on seventeen acres, which produced thirty-three tons to the acre; the rows (on ridges) four feet asunder, and the plants a foot asunder in the rows.

In this mode of raising the ruta baga, by transplanting the entire crop, so much time is gained for preparing the ground, that two crops of weeds may be destroyed, by that number of ploughings: the first in the beginning of June, and the second immediately before transplanting. But Mr. Cobbett recommends a previous *deep* fall-ploughing, and another *deep* ploughing in April, of the ground intended for the ruta baga. The like two deep ploughings will be equally proper and beneficial for the mangel wurtzel and carrots.

Among the advantages of the transplanting method, mentioned by Mr. Cobbett, one is, "that it saves almost the whole of the *after culture*. There is no *hoeing*; no *thinning* of the plants; and not more than one ploughing between the ridges."

Harvesting of Roots. The mangel wurtzel, growing chiefly above the surface, and thus exposed to frost, should be taken up the latter end of October or beginning of November, according to the nature of the season. The harvesting of carrots may follow that of the mangel wurtzel; and the ruta baga succeed the carrots. In the first experimental culture of these roots, in which but small quantities are raised, they can be preserved in dry cellars not liable to freezing. Where large quantities are raised, they may be deposited in heaps sufficiently covered, in a dry field. The common method of heaping and covering roots in the field, and which Mr. Cobbett practised with the ruta baga, is perhaps as good as any. Holes of a round or square form are dug about a foot deep, and about fifty bushels are put into each, piling up the roots above the level of the surface of the land, sloping to the top: then covering them with straw, throw earth over the whole to a depth sufficient to guard them from frost. Smooth the surface of this earth by beating it close with the back of a spade, or other instrument, the better to cast off rain. On Long Island and in Pennsylvania, a covering of earth a foot or fifteen inches deep has been found sufficient. A greater depth will probably be necessary here. In throwing up this cover, a trench will be formed on all sides of the heap, to receive the water running off it. It may be well to sink the bottom of the trench lower than the bottom of the hole in which the roots are deposited. Where large quantities are to be thus preserved, several loads may be put into one hole: and then oblong heaps will be best, as requiring less labour in covering them. A quantity of roots, for feeding cattle till the middle of December, may be kept in a barn or stable covered with straw or any dry litter. I would begin feeding with mangel wurtzel—follow next with carrots—and conclude with ruta baga; for the latter root will keep sound until the commencement of the summer succeeding their growth.

All the roots, especially the mangel

wurtzel and carrots, should be fully dried before they are housed, or covered in the field, to guard them against rotting.

Roots for raising Seed. Of the mangel wurtzel I would select large and fair roots, of a red colour, whose bodies have grown most above ground, and with a moderate, if not the smallest, quantity of leaves; for although *these* are valuable for stripping, the *roots* are much more valuable; and I am inclined to think those with small tops are least liable to rot.

Of carrots, large and fair roots of the deepest yellow colour, and with the smallest tops in proportion to the size of the roots, are to be preferred.

With regard to the ruta baga, Mr. Cobbett says it is apt to *degenerate*, if the seed be not saved with care. "We in England (says he) examine well to find out those that run least into *neck* and *green*. We reject all such as approach at all towards a *whitish* colour, or which are even of a *greenish* colour *towards the neck*, which *there* ought to be a little of a *reddish cast*."

Varieties of plants of the *same kind* (the different sorts of cabbages, for instance, or of Indian corn) if growing near together and bearing seed, will impart to one another their respective peculiarities; and injuriously, whenever it is desired to preserve their distinct qualities unmixed, and to prevent an inferior engendering with one of superior quality; the impregnating dust of the flowers of plants falling on the flowers of other plants of the same kind, producing effects similar to the crossing of animals of the same kind but of different breeds. In a word, the *sexual* system exists in plants as well as among animals; only in plants the male and female are generally united in the same plant; as in Indian corn, the male impregnating dust (the farina) is in the tassel or flower, at the top: the ear is the female, and from every cell of the future grain proceeds a thread, which together constitute what is called the silk, on which the farina falling, causes the cells to fill, and become, when ripe, kernels of corn. In most fruits, as the apple and pear, the male and female are in the same flower. But in hemp, some of the plants are exclusively male, and others exclusively female.

The ruta baga, therefore, when set out for bearing seed, should be placed at a distance from every other seed plant of the turnip or cabbage kind. So likewise the mangel wurtzel, intended to bear seed, should not be set near any other seed-beet plants. It may not be amiss to add, that for the same reasons, pumpkins, squashes, melons, cucumbers, in all their varieties, in order to preserve them in purity, should be planted at some distance from each other.

Pumpkins, as food for domestic animals, seem closely connected with the roots before mentioned. Every farmer knows their value for milch cows, for fattening cattle, and for swine. Their consumption conveniently precedes that of the mangel wurtzel.

With ample supplies of the vegetables whose culture I have mentioned and described, our present stocks may be better fed, their numbers enlarged, our coarse fodder be more advantageously consumed, our manure increased, and pork and beef, and the products of the dairy, probably doubled. The latter, in particular, are miserably deficient, from the want of juicy food for cows, in continuance of the supply yielded by our common pastures just at midsummer. Pumpkins and the roots, indeed, will not be ready to keep up that supply: but oats and barley, and above all, Indian corn, may be sown and planted, to be cut green, and carry our cows along to the last of September, when pumpkins will begin to ripen. The consumption of these green crops and roots, by producing vast additions to our manure, will enable us to enrich our fields, and to make annual additions to the products of our farms.

The immense importance of providing for cows a full supply of food, and of food which they relish, to the extent of their appetites, has been demonstrated by many examples of very large products of milk, butter and cheese, from cows so supplied. The following statement from a recent English publication is a further illustration of the fact:—"A farmer, some years since, kept *eighteen* cows upon a *Common*, and was often obliged to buy butter for his family. The Common was *inclosed* (which deprived the farmer of his pasture), and the same person supplied his family amply with milk and butter, from *four* cows *well kept*."

(*To be continued.*)

The subject of *Cotton-seed Oil*, is gaining attention, and obtaining investigation both in Europe and America. It is a subject highly important to the southern states. Millions of bushels of cotton seed are annually used as manure for corn, wheat, &c. in South Carolina. For this purpose the

article is worth, at the present reduced prices of staple commodities, about 12 or 15 cents a bushel; weighing about 25 lbs. lightly thrown in. One hundred pounds of cotton in the seed, yields about 27 pounds of clean cotton, and about three bushels of seed. The oleaginous quality of the pulp of cotton-seed has long been known; and it is believed that any given quantity of it contains as much oil as a like quantity of the pulp of any other seed. As to its qualities, they are not all fully developed; but considerable experience among leather-dressers in North Carolina, has proven it to be equal to any other oil for currying of leather for shoes, boots, harness, &c. Whether it can be made to take the place of linseed oil, in painting, or of olive in manufactures, remains to be determined. The great difficulty attending the extracting of oil from cotton-seed, lies in the soft and spongy texture of the shell which encloses the pulp, which with the short fibres of cotton adhering to it, absorbs a great portion of oil in the process. If the seed could be made to pass hastily through fire, by the operation of machinery, to divest it of the adhering cotton, then it seems probable, that a machine somewhat similar to that made for hulling barley, would take off the shell or hull with great expedition. From all the light elicited on the subject, it appears probable, that each bushel of seed might produce a gallon of oil; and that the pulp, after the extraction of the oil, would still be valuable for feeding cattle or for manure. For every bale of cotton there might be produced about ten gallons of oil: this, should the demand for oil continue, would be equal to half or two-thirds the value of the cotton. The subject is highly important to this state; and it is humbly conceived, would be worthy the attention of the Agricultural Society of South Carolina, and perhaps of legislative aid, by way of premiums, to encourage further practical investigation.

[*Pee Dee Gazette.*

The American Farmer contains a communication suggesting a theory which explains the fattening the turkey, as published in the National Recorder, vol iii. p. 372.

The Fattening the Turkey explained.

Mr. Skinner,

The free access which you allow the ladies to your valuable paper, emboldens me to give you a short essay, in explanation of some very abstruse affairs in housewifery. You must know, sir, that I am one of those women, who never neglect the house, for things out of the house; nevertheless it so happened a few evenings ago, that tea was over at a very early hour, and all things being in place, I was really out of employment for a short time, and taking up the paper, to amuse myself with the news of the day, my eye glanced upon an advertisement, giving notice that there would be a chemical and philosophical lecture that evening, in the popular way; I instantly resolved to be present, and procured a ticket. The exhibition pleased me very much, and my mind ran the whole night on chemistry. In the morning I resolved to attempt the explanation of a number of those phenomena, which had all along puzzled my brains. I opened your Farmer, and was delighted to find, how easily I could explain wine making, cheese making, butter making, beer making, &c. and went on swimmingly in elucidating to myself, the action of manures on my garden, and the growth of my cabbages. In fact, I thought I could explain all the difficulties in nature, till I came across your account of the turkey, that was fattened on carbon and a grain of corn, per diem. This, sir, brought me to a dead stand, and I was so perplexed, that I was almost ready to wish, I never had read the advertisement; but recollecting an old maxim of my father's, *to take a night's sleep to recover the brain in a difficulty*, I followed the example, and next morning found my mind so bright, that every difficulty vanished.

But before I ventured to divulge the solution, I waited on my brother, who is a doctor and a profound chemist, to know his explanation; he received the question without any embarrassment, as learned men always do, and answered with great calmness, that it was not a very extraordinary thing; for when he was a student at Paris, some of his acquaintances, who were very thin and lean, died, and when the bodies were taken up, some time afterwards, to be removed to their native country, they had become lumps of fat,* and that he supposed something like this had happened to the turkeys, by the medium of charcoal.

This astonished me very much, but I did

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* Alluding to the discovery of some bodies in the burying ground of Innocents, at Paris, that had changed to a fatty substance like spermaceti.

Note. If any one doubts the fattening quality of beer, let him call up the master of a porter cellar, and his doubts will soon be removed.

not like the solution, because it would not make my turkeys much better, if they did not weigh more. I wanted fat added to the lean, and not fat made out of the lean. I therefore prefer my own explanation, which I now give you without farther comment.

THEORY OF AUNT DINAH.

The bowels of animals are always charged with hydrogen gas, as well as some atmospheric air, the latter being decomposed, as also the carbon, by the digestive powers, the hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon, and oxygen, are left at liberty to be formed into animal substance or turkey; whilst the remaining hydrogen and some of the oxygen are formed into water, by the help of those explosions, that always happen, when the bowels suffer with hunger. This water will be ærated with some carbonic acid gas, and impregnated with *bile* from the liver, which is equal to hops and superior to horse aloes, which was proposed by his late majesty to Whitebread the brewer, to make beer.

Now, sir, a person must be very dull in chemistry, if he does not perceive, that malt is all that is wanting to form with the above ingredients one of the most fattening liquors in the world, and that this malt is most happily supplied by the grain of corn, given daily to the turkey, equally well as if he had a few grains of barley; the stomach instantly malts it, and the turkey is constantly supplied with strong beer. But, sir, one experiment must be made, before it can be ascertained whose theory is the best—the turkey must be fattened again in the same way, that is with plenty of charcoal, and one grain of corn, or ten grains of barley per diem, and if he gains no weight my brother's theory is correct—if he gains weight, the praise must indubitably be bestowed on your chemical friend.

AUNT DINAH.

Record.

From the National Intelligencer, Dec. 4.

Extract of a Letter from Brigadier General Atkinson to the Secretary of War.

Franklin, October 18, 1820.

Sir—I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your communication of the 17th and 21st June. Your instructions respecting the occupancy of Fort Osage, and in relation to the complaints made by the Osage deputation, at Washington, shall be particularly attended to.

I left Council Bluffs on the 1st inst. and came down the wagon road that lieutenant Fields has opened, with his command. We overtook him on Grand river, about 40 miles above its mouth, on the 10th inst. with his wagon, team, and party, in good condition. As soon as I get his report on opening the road, it shall be forwarded to you, as shall the report and topographical sketch of lieutenant Talcott, of the route across to St. Peter's. The road is measured from the Bluffs to Chariton; the distance is about 250 miles; the distance across to St. Peter's is estimated at 300 miles. From a belief that the Sac Indians are secretly hostile to the whites, I have deferred having the country across to Rock island, and Prairie du Chien, explored for the present.

The ague and fever has been prevalent at the posts above, for the last two months, but there is every reason to believe that it will soon disappear. Only one death has occurred among the troops, from the 15th April to the 1st inst. and that from a case of the typhus.

The new barracks were in a state of forwardness on the 1st instant; indeed, most of the troops were quartered. The rooms were put up with round logs, and hewn down without and within—the whole of the infantry, and one block of the rifle barracks, are covered with shingles. Good brick chimnies were made to most of the rooms and the residue, no doubt, completed by this time. The barracks are dry and comfortable, and will probably last some fifteen years; a plan of their construction, and of their defences, shall be forwarded to you on my arrival at St. Louis.

Our crop surpasses my expectations; of corn we shall no doubt gather more than 10,000 bushels. From the quantity gathered and measured, from an acre, which, I believe, yielded not more than an average, we should count on more than 13,000 bushels. The acre alluded to produced 102½ bushels of shelled corn, but, as it was not yet quite dry, an allowance for shrinking of 22½ per cent. would still give us more than the latter quantity. Our potato crop will not be as abundant as anticipated, nor will the product of turnips; of the former we shall probably gather four thousand bushels, and four to five thousand of the latter. Grasshoppers appeared in myriads the last week in August, and stripped the turnips of their leaves—they were so well grown, however, as to resuscitate measurably, and will give half a crop. If these destructive visitants had made their appearance six weeks sooner, we should not have made one bushel of corn. They stripped it, even at that late period, of half its leaves. The Pawnee Indians lost their whole crop by their ravages, and I understand that at the earl of Selkirk's establishment on Red river, the two last crops have been entirely destroyed by them.

If we are not again visited by these insects, there is no doubt but we shall be able, after gathering the next crop, to subsist ourselves in plentiful abundance by our own labours. We have cut and preserved 250 tons of hay, which will be sufficient for our horses and cattle.

The Indian tribes on the Missouri continue friendly towards us. Our opportunity of judging of their dispositions has been greater the present season than at any former period. In September there were assembled at one time, at the Bluffs, the chiefs and head men of the three bands of Pawnees, of the Kansas, of the Mahas,

of the Puncas—of the three bands of Yanketon Sioux; of the Titon Sioux, and of the Sione Sioux, residing above the Great Bend; all of whom professed to be, and are, no doubt, as friendly as could be wished. It is said that the Aracaras, who inhabit the country 150 miles below the Mandans, speak lightly of the coming of the troops; and the friendly disposition of the Mandans is also questioned. In these reports but little confidence should be placed. For my own part, I have not the least doubt but the presence of 400 troops would be quite sufficient to overawe them; and make as favourable an impression as could be desired, and which I must hope will be authorized early in the spring. There certainly is not the least difficulty, with proper management, of carrying the views of government into full effect, in regard to opening a friendly intercourse with the upper tribes.

Whilst the representatives of the abovementioned tribes were at the Bluffs, the brigade was paraded for review, with two pieces of cannon on the right, supplied with horses and mounted artillerists. After the troops were reviewed in line, and in passing in common and quick time, they were carried through various evolutions, and the artillery made to pass over the plain at the full speed of the horses. The display had the effect on the minds of the Indians, that it was intended to inspire, which was most favourable, as to the appearance and efficiency of the troops, and of the practicability of using cannon with ease and effect. The steam boat "Expedition" was also put in motion, to their great astonishment and admiration.

Major O'Fallon has been zealous and indefatigable in the discharge of his duties as Indian agent. His impartial and dignified conduct towards the Indians has made a very favourable impression on them; and it requires nothing but a similar course of conduct, on the part of the agent of government, to perpetuate their friendship.

Died, at Aux Cayes, on the 26th ult. Duncan McIntosh. He may be styled the hero of humanity, the philanthropist and the Christian. During the revolutionary troubles of 1793, in the island of St. Domingo, this man, at the hazard of his life, saved a large number of the trembling inhabitants from the remorseless fury of the blacks; he courted danger in every shape for the preservation of fellow man; he preserved the lives of others, at the imminent and hourly hazard of his own. What shall be now said of Alexanders, of the Cæsars, of the Bonapartes—"Ye little stars, hide your diminished rays."

A crown immortal sparkles on his brow,
Where are your laurels, mighty heroes, now.
His spirit soars beyond the starry dome,
And shouting angels hail the conqueror home.

Foreign Literature and Science.

Compiled for the National Recorder.

Oxygenated water, as prepared by Thenard, is a real combination of water with oxygen, and not a simple solution of oxygen gas in water. It is not analogous to any compound at present known in chemistry. Its density is 1.452, and when poured into common water it flows upon it like syrup. The phenomena presented by its contact with other substances, differs entirely from those ordinarily observed. Thus platina, gold, silver, oxide of manganese, &c. decompose it immediately, separating the whole of the combined oxygen gas, and without appropriating to themselves any part of it. This cannot be explained by affinity, at least as the term has generally been used. This is certainly one of the most remarkable discoveries of modern times, and opens to chemists a new career, which can hardly fail to extend their views of chemical combination. The oxygenated water has been employed in restoring ancient pictures or designs which have been spoiled by the gradual combination of sulphur or sulphuretted hydrogen with the white lead used by the painter. It is only necessary to wash the dark spots with water feebly oxygenated with five or six times its volume of oxygen. The dark hue immediately disappears. The sulphuret of lead is converted into a sulphate, which is white. [*Bul. de la Soc. d'Encour.*

Count Lasteyrie has reported to the Society D'Encouragement of Paris (under date of June 28, 1820,) in favour of the lithographic paper or cards invented by Senefelder. The card is covered on one or both of its faces with an argilo-calcareous mixture, which has the property of receiving the ink or the crayon, and undergoing the ordinary preparation, and furnishing proofs as neat and perfect as those obtained from designs traced on stone. Common writing is easily transferred to the lithographic or papyrographic plate, and copies of it taken. The Persian ambassador being present with the commissioners at their examination of the press, wrote in Arabic a note, of which copies were taken. The translation is as follows:—

"Mirza Aboul Hassan Kham, ambassador extraordinary from the illustrious court of Persia, residing in the delightful city of Paris, the 24th May, 1820, of the Christian era, came to see the papyrographic press, which has been invented in France, and which offers greater facilities than any other. All that I have seen thus far in Paris, either with respect to the climate, or to objects of art, surpasses all that I have seen in other countries."

A Mr. Cinsle, of London, has invented

what he calls *Ivory paper*, which is found, in regard to hardness, smoothness and whiteness, to answer as well as ivory in the hands of miniature painters. A premium of thirty guineas has been assigned to the inventor by the Adelphi Society in London.

Mr. Westrumb has found that the salts of potash and soda, deprived of their water of crystallization, answer as well as the pure alkali itself in the fabrication of glass. Muriate of soda, sulphate of potash, and particularly sulphate of soda, contain much water. The latter loses 58 per cent. by drying. Twenty-four parts of sulphate of soda, thoroughly dried, are mixed with eight parts of powdered charcoal, and sixteen of good white sand: the mixture is to be calcined in the drying oven until the sulphur is dissipated, and then transported into the pots for fusion. It gives a superb glass. [*Ann. Gen. de Sci. Phys. of Brussels.*

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Napoleon Medals.—"This history of the celebrated series of Napoleon medals, we hear, is written by M. Denon, from whose designs they were executed. It is valuable for its copious and authentic account of the events commemorated by the medals, as well as for the taste and knowledge it displays as a work of art."

Memorials of the Reformation under the Reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Queen Mary, with the Original Papers, Records, &c. By John Strype, M. A. 7 vols. 8vo.

Three Months passed in the Mountains east of Rome, during the Year 1819. By Maria Graham, author of "A Journal of a Residence in India."

Lady Morgan is proceeding rapidly in the completion of her work on Italy.

The author of Dr. Syntax in Search of the Picturesque, is preparing another work under the title of Dr. Syntax in Search of a Wife, with twenty-four designs by Rowlandson.

The Rev. N. R. Turner, of Denton, is engaged on a New Metrical Version of the Psalms, adapted to be sung in churches.

The author of the Philosophy of Elocution is preparing for the press a work to be entitled "Anti-Scepticism, or an Inquiry into the Nature and Philosophy of Language as connected with the Sacred Scriptures."

A Narrative of the Persecutions of the Protestants in the South of France, during the Years 1814, 1815, and 1816, is preparing by Mark Wilks.

The Rev. T. H. Horne is preparing a new edition of his Introduction to the Critical Study of the Holy Scriptures, revised, corrected and enlarged, in four 8vo. volumes. With maps and fac similes of Biblical MS.

Mr. Godwin has in forwardness a new work, under the title "Of Population; an Inquiry Concerning the Power of Increase in the Numbers of Mankind; being an answer to Mr. Malthus' Essay on that subject."

DOMESTIC.

Messrs. Wells and Lilly, of Boston, have lately republished, "Self Cultivation recommended; or Hints on a Youth's leaving School." By the Rev. Isaac Taylor, of Ongar. The chapters are as follows: On the purport of education to fit us for our stations in life; on the different, &c.

A little book has been published at Andover, called "The Sunday School; or Village Sketches." It consists of alternate tales, religious discourses, and questions relating to them. It is intended, as the title implies, for Sunday reading for children.

Messrs. Wells and Lilly have printed, in a uniform style, under the general title of the British Prose Writers, the following works, in six volumes: Walpole's Reminiscences and Walpoliana; Burns' Letters; Goldsmith's Essays and Bee; Gray's Letters; lords Bacon and Clarendon's Essays; lady Russell's Letters. They intend to continue to reprint, in the same style, a selection of works of the same character.

☞ As we have been deprived of the services of the carrier who has so long and so carefully attended to the delivery of this paper, some of the subscribers may have not received the last number; and as two carriers were employed, some may have been twice supplied. It is particularly requested that information of such mistakes may be given to the present carrier.

TERMS OF PUBLICATION.

Subscriptions to the National Recorder may commence at any time, though it is desirable that they should begin with a volume: they may be withdrawn at the close of any volume, provided notice be sent before any part of the next volume shall have been forwarded. Payment to be made in July of each year for the whole year. Such as begin with the second volume of any year, to pay for that volume on the first of January following.

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FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

SATURDAY SERMON.

No. 10.

"Man goeth forth to his work, and to his labour until the evening."—PSALM civ. v. 23.

J. F— is an old schoolfellow of mine, who inherited a large estate from his father, but was so fortunate as to escape the corrupting influence which such a circumstance too commonly exerts. Of unwearied diligence and great goodness of heart and affability of manners, he was equally beloved by the teachers and scholars, and has since preserved the same standing in the esteem of all who know him. My studies were early broken off by the necessity of applying to business, and I have since seen him but seldom. Our intercourse by letter has been uninterrupted, though somewhat affected by the different pursuits in which we have been engaged. Four or five years ago he set off for Europe, whence he has returned nearly two years, and has married and settled himself in a pleasant part of the country, about thirty miles from here. Preferring that residence to a city life, and intending to leave it but for a few months in the winter, he has bestowed more care upon it than is usually given to our country houses, and has surrounded himself with all the comforts and luxuries that taste can derive from opulence.

Returning last fall from a journey, I paid him a visit, and spent a day with him with much gratification. We walked over his grounds, and looked at the improvements that have been made, and talked of those which are yet to be accomplished. Occasional recollections of "auld lang syne" varied the discourse, till the approach of evening called us to the house. One of my favourite castles in the air, has been a project of spending a considerable time, in London and Paris, in the collection of a large library. I have thought of it a hundred times, and determined on the editions, the kind of binding that would be most agreeable, and every thing else that it was necessary to decide beforehand. F— has realized the visions of my imagination. Restrained by nothing but his own taste, he has brought over a much larger collection than I had ever seen in private hands. He is nothing of a virtuoso in books, and has none that derive their principal value from the printer or from their scarcity. As this was the first time that I had seen him since his return, we sat late in animated discourse upon his residence abroad. Travel has had upon him its proper effect. He left home, not for the sake of novelty and amusement, but with the intention of an active and constant attention to all that could tend to make him wiser and better.

As he landed in England, he banished from his mind as far as possible, the busy noise that was about him, and surrendered himself to the thoughts that come thronging into the mind of every American of cultivated understanding, when he first sets foot upon English ground. This, he thought, is the land that has been rendered so illustrious as the abode of men who have been foremost in almost every thing that has dignified mankind. This is the birthplace of the poets and philosophers to whose influence upon me is owing my present capacity for happiness. This has been the home of Bacon, of Milton, of Shakspeare; of Johnson and Pope; Addison and Dryden. Here rose the earnest voice of Cowper and here was felt the energy of Chatham and the majesty of Burke. Let him not be supposed deficient in patriotism, because he admires a country to which we owe so much. But some of our sturdy republicans can make no distinction between the scheming governors of England, and the mass of learning and philosophy and literature, which with the great body of the people, form a nation of a very different character. "England, with all thy faults, I love thee still!"

Soon as possible, he procured admittance to the society of the great men who will mark the present era in British history. He spent a winter in Edinburgh, and conversed with Campbell and Scott, Mackintosh and Playfair; listened with

veneration to Dugald Stewart; and was delighted with the brilliant talent of Mr. Jeffrey. His travels to the continent we passed hastily over, for I had always something to ask of my English favourites, that brought us back to the land which for so long a time bore in America the name of *home*. The time for separation at length arrived, and my reflections upon the singular felicity of my friend, who seemed to have enjoyed so much of what I have long desired, were soon broken off by sleep.

In the morning we talked of the eminent contributions that had been made to literature since his departure from home; and his own remarks were so often intermixed with a recollection of those he had heard from his Scottish friends, upon whom he dwelt with peculiar pleasure, that I listened with great interest, and felt as if I had acquired some personal knowledge of these eminent men.

As the morning began to wear away, I made arrangements with F— to hear from him often, and that he should soon pay me a visit; and mounting my horse, rode towards home.

"Hackneyed in business, wearied at that oar,
Which thousands, once fast chained to, quit no more."

"Wearied, indeed," thought I, "and the chain seems as strong as ever. How very faint is the probability that I shall ever possess the freedom and opulence of F—; or enjoy the opportunities that he has had of raising myself in the scale of rational existence. With the warmest admiration of the country, my days are all spent in Philadelphia. With a strong love of literature and philosophy, I must devote my time to calculations of profit and loss. Confined to a dull round of business, the mind becomes languid. A constant recurrence to matters of little importance, narrows our views. Continual intercourse with men whose understandings have never been exercised upon any thing higher than their own interest, makes us too easily satisfied with ourselves. The standard of comparison is insensibly reduced, and our taste, and zeal, and ardour for improvement, are abased and extinguished. And then the care and anxiety of the husband and father, the support of whose family depends upon his exertions, must continually attract his thoughts when he endeavours to fix them upon any other subject." Occupied with such reflections, I rode along, mile after mile, with an attention so much absorbed, that I took no notice of the surrounding scenery. The splendour of the evening at length called me to other thoughts, and the beauty of the country shed its cheerful influence upon me. I have always looked upon nature as the visible manifestation of Divine Goodness; and never admire a vast prospect, a clear river, a green field or a stately tree, without a feeling of devout adoration towards the God and Father of All. I now looked back upon the hours that had been spent in discontent, with feelings of a very different nature. Reviewing the years of infancy and youth, I saw that through all my life I have had more success than could have been expected from the small share I had of industry or prudence. I had long been in great danger of acquiring habits destructive of order and happiness, and had been preserved, not by my own energy, for I was always too ready to go with the crowd. "A hand unseen was with me still." Blessing after blessing has followed me all the days of my life. Happy in a wife who would deserve the confidence and affection of a better man; possessing the means of living in comfort, and having the power of giving to my children the mental cultivation that will enable them to fill their part in life with honour—how could I be so ungrateful, as to indulge any dissatisfaction with my lot! As for the want of time of which I complained so heavily, I ought to be satisfied with what I have, at least till it is all employed in the most useful manner. A considerable part of every day is now at my disposal, and is wasted most heartlessly; wasted so absolutely, that I am often unable at night to recollect any thing that I did or thought, that could take up half the time. There is nothing so trifling or uninteresting, that is not sufficient to withdraw my attention from any useful employment. If I should earnestly endeavour to make the best use of the time now in my power, I should perhaps find little reason to regret that I have no more.

During these thoughts, I had entered the town, and soon arrived at my own door. I ran into the house, and was received by my wife with the warmest expression of joyful affection. In a few minutes a voice behind me cried out "Father!" and my little boy, who had heard of my arrival and left his bed, sprang into my lap in his night clothes, and with his arms round my neck and his little cheek pressed against mine, showed the most animated delight. In the midst of this happiness, I recollected my ingratitude, and

cried aloud "O most merciful God, I want nothing but a thankful heart!"

YORICK.

CONGRESS.

SENATE.

The committee of the Senate, to whom was referred the petition of Matthew Lyon, delivered a report on the 5th, concluding with the following resolutions:

Resolved, That so much of the act entitled an act for the punishment of certain crimes against the United States, approved the 14th July, 1798, as pretends to prescribe and punish libels, is unconstitutional.

Resolved, That the fines collected under that act ought to be restored to those from whom they were exacted; and that these resolutions be recommitted to the committee who brought them in, with instructions to report a bill to that effect.

The report was ordered to be printed.

On the 6th, the Senate resumed the consideration of the bill for the admission of Missouri. Mr. Barbour, of Virginia, proposed that the question should be decided without debate. Mr. Eaton, of Tennessee, offered the following proviso to the resolution:

Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to give the assent of Congress to any provision in the constitution of Missouri, if any such there be, which contravenes that clause in the constitution of the United States, which declares that "the citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states."

Mr. King, of New York, thought this amendment ought not to be decided, till time had been taken to consider whether it meant any thing or nothing, and if any thing, what that was.

Mr. Eaton thought that the resolution would obviate the difficulty felt by himself and others, from a doubt whether the constitution of Missouri was not repugnant to that of the United States.

It was postponed till next day.

On the 7th, Mr. King, of New York, observed, that the decision had been deferred yesterday at his request. For himself, he could discover no good effect which the proviso would produce. Such a declaration could not weaken the effect of the article of the constitution adopted by Missouri, or alter in any respect, he conceived, the question as it already stood before the Senate, concerning the admission of the new state. He therefore could not, viewing it as he did, assent to this proposition.

Mr. Wilson, of New Jersey, offered the following substitute, by way of amendment to the proposition of Mr. Eaton, which, Mr. W. said, would answer better his view of the subject, being more specific and particular than the proviso already offered:

"That nothing herein contained shall be construed as giving the assent of Congress to so much of the constitution of the state of Missouri making it the duty of the legislature of said state to pass a law, "to prevent free negroes and mulattoes from coming to, and settling in, said state, under any pretext whatsoever," as may be repugnant to that provision of the constitution of the United States which prescribes that "the citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states."

Only nine voting for this amendment, it was rejected, as was also Mr. Eaton's, by a vote of 24 to 21; some of the southern members voting in the negative.

Mr. Burwell, of Rhode Island, spoke half an hour to establish the repugnance of the Missouri constitution to that of the United States, and then the subject was postponed till next day, when Mr. Smith, of South Carolina, in a speech of more than two hours length, argued in support of the unexceptionable republican character of the constitution of Missouri, its conformity with the constitution of the United States, and the right of the state to admission into the union. The subject was then postponed to next day.

On the 9th, Mr. Holmes, of Maine, addressed the Senate an hour and a half, in favour of the admission of Missouri; and Mr. Otis, of Massachusetts, spoke an hour against its admission with its present constitution.

On the 11th, Mr. Eaton again offered his amendment, which was opposed by Mr. King, but was agreed to.

On the question of ordering the resolution to a third reading, Mr. Morril, of New Hampshire, spoke two hours against it. Mr. Macon, of North Carolina, then moved to recommit the bill to the committee of the whole, with instructions to strike out Mr. Eaton's proviso. This was rejected, 27 to 17; and the bill was ordered to be engrossed and read a third time, by a vote of 26 to 18.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

In the House of Representatives on the 5th, the amendment to the constitution in relation to the election of electors of president and vice-president and members of the House of Representatives, was under consideration.

It was opposed by Mr. Reid, of Georgia, Mr. Barbour, of Virginia, and Mr. Rea, of Tennessee; and advocated by Mr. Smith, of North Carolina, and Mr. Lowndes, of South Carolina, and was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 103 to 59.

On the 6th, the bill for admitting Missouri into the union was read, and Mr. Lowndes delivered a speech of nearly two hours long. The substance of his argument was, that, by the act authorizing the people of Missouri to form a constitution and state government, certain rights were given to them; by the former practice of the government, he endeavoured to show that the mere circumstance of assenting to the proposition of Congress was enough to constitute the people a state, the act of declaration now proposed to the House, being mere surplusage. Missouri had, then, a right to form a government absolutely and inalienably. If she had not now the rights of a state, let it be shown how she had lost them. It is contrary to the principles of the constitution, contrary to the genius of our government, that, having once given them the right of self government, Congress can now take it from them. As for the question whether the constitution chosen was repugnant to that of the United States, it ought to be left to the judiciary.

On the next day Mr. Sergeant replied. We should be glad to copy the whole speech of this accomplished gentleman, who has upon this occasion, as well as that of the last session, been able to give attraction and novelty to a subject on which so much had been said, and to add confidence to the most decided advocates of the restriction on slavery. But our limits will not permit it, and as the question has been so fully discussed, it is unnecessary. A striking proof of the strength of our representative is afforded by the fact, that in comparison with him on this question, Mr. Lowndes, one of the ablest men in the House, appears futile and insignificant.—We are aware that the side chosen by Mr. L. on the present occasion, affords little opportunity for the display of force of argument, and must regret that an unfortunate prejudice should, upon any occasion, deprive us of the effect of his powerful mind.

On the 8th, Mr. Storrs, of New York, spoke an hour against the bill, and Mr. Barbour, of Virginia, defended it at somewhat greater length, and the House adjourned.

On the 9th, Mr. Smyth, of Virginia, spoke two hours in support of the bill for admitting Missouri, and Mr. Story, of New York, spoke an hour against it.

On Monday, the 11th, Mr. Archer, of Virginia, spoke in favour of the bill. On motion of Mr. Baldwin, the *preamble* to the resolution was stricken out, by a vote of 87 to 65. Mr. Hemphill delivered, at considerable length, his sentiments in hostility to the resolution for the admission of Missouri as now constituted.

Pennsylvania.—The following preamble and resolution have been laid on the table of the House of Representatives of this state, by Mr Lawrence, of Washington:

Whereas, the people of this commonwealth have for years past viewed with regret the political controversies which have prevailed, and the consequent evils which have grown out of them, which have had a tendency to destroy the social harmony of neighbourhoods, as well as perplex the minds of individuals; and whereas the thirst for office has become so inordinate, and applications to the executive so numerous, that the exercise of his office is rendered not only difficult, but harassing, owing to the extensive power of appointment vested in him by the constitution; and whereas a remedy of these evils must be desirable to all, and as the only way of reaching the object would be by a revision of the constitution: Therefore,

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to inquire into the expediency of recommending the call of a convention to amend the constitution, and also to suggest for consideration what they suppose its principal defects.

Miscellany.

From La Belle Assemblée.

The Crusaders' First View of Jerusalem.

"The holy city was in view; every heart glowed with rapture; every eye was bathed in tears. The word Jerusalem was repeated in tumultuous wonder by a thousand tongues: and those who first beheld the blessed spot, called their friends to witness the glorious sight. All past pains were forgotten; a moment's happiness outweighed years of sorrow. In their warm imaginations the sepulchre was redeemed, and the cross triumphed over the crescent. But with that rapidity of thought which distinguishes minds when strongly agitated by passion, the joy of the stranger and the fierceness of the warrior, were changed in a moment for religious ideas and feelings. Jerusalem was the scene of the resurrection of Christ; and, therefore, the subject of holy rejoicing: but it was the place of his sufferings also; and true devotion, full of self abasement and grati-

tude, is as strongly affected by the causes and circumstances as the consequences of the great sacrifice. The soldier became in an instant the simple pilgrim; his lance and sword were thrown aside; he wept over the ground which, he said, his Saviour had wept over; and it was only with naked feet that he could worthily approach the seat of man's redemption."

Taméaméa, King of the Sandwich Islands.

At the time that captain Cook made his voyage round the world, Taméaméa was the hereditary chief of a canton of the island of Owhyee, where a kind of feudal system had been long established, as in all the islands of the Archipelago. In a discussion which took place some years after, between the chief of an island and his vassals, the former, led away by passion, gave Taméaméa a blow on the face. To punish so degrading a treatment, at the instigation of the most polished among the people, who look upon such an affront as the vilest indignity, the assembly of the chiefs condemned the unfortunate prince to choose his death, either by the dagger or by poison. Taméaméa conducted himself with so much address in this conjuncture, that he was nominated to the place of the deceased, to the exclusion of his natural heirs. After this unexpected elevation, though not an illegal one in that country, and which took place in the year 1785, Taméaméa, by the alliances he made, and the benefits he conferred, drew on himself the regard of all those chiefs who were possessed of the most influence, and consequently the most capable of being of service to him.

His authority once firmly established at Owhyee, Taméaméa attacked the neighbouring islands, one after the other; and which, more or less, had submitted to the power of his unfortunate predecessor. After long and sanguinary wars, sustained on both sides with equal courage and animosity, all that cluster of islands were subjugated. In the midst of all those innumerable obstacles which presented themselves against him, in the rights and ambition of the chiefs, and the rivalship which reigned among the people belonging to the different islands, Taméaméa knew how to maintain his conquests; and after that of Woaho, which was achieved in 1808, his authority was acknowledged in the six islands which lay most to the eastward, where he placed governors, who were all devoted to him. Atouaï and Oniow, shielded by their distance, had not yet been attacked; but Tamari, king of those islands, had acknowledged his sovereignty, and paid tribute to him.

Not content with having dispossessed these princes, Taméaméa confined, in very narrow bounds, the power of those vassals who had heretofore been almost independent. Several were despoiled of their territories, others were allowed only to keep a part of them, and a great number, retained by the conqueror, lived at a distance from their former possessions. While this able despot held the chiefs in that state of subordination, which seemed likely to insure his own government, the justice and stability of that government conciliated the affection and respect of all those people whose admiration he had gained and merited by his exploits. He established an order and police in his states, which might serve as a model to several kingdoms in Europe. After having usefully employed in his wars all those adventurers that chance had collected together in his service, Taméaméa knew how to distinguish the most recommendable by their conduct and their devotion to him; and he gained their attachment by raising them to the first rank of the hierarchy of the country, in giving them portions of land. He adopted some European customs, but without appearing to substitute them for those that were insular, which he faithfully observed in all religious and political ceremonies.

In exchange for sandal wood, and those provisions which the islands produce in abundance, Taméaméa has procured from different navigators, (most of them Americans, who have frequented the islands for thirty years) small howitzers, several thousand muskets, with a proportionate quantity of ammunition; merchandises of every useful kind, and those that are most indispensable, with two hundred thousand piastres. Magazines have been erected of stone to contain these riches. The port of Anaroura, on the south coast of Woaho, the general rendezvous of the navigators, is defended by a square fort, with forty pieces of cannon. These imposing means cannot be very formidable in the hands of such artillerymen as these inexperienced natives: though it is said, that should any one attempt invasion, they would find many other obstacles to their landing.

Taméaméa has formed a European navy: it was composed some time ago of three brigs of one hundred and fifty to two hundred tons, and four small galliots. These

vessels were entirely manned with natives, who became in time excellent sailors, and knew how to manœuvre. The sailors belonging to these ships were about forming a trade with the northeast coast of America, for furs. It is wonderful to see with what facility these young men, born under the torrid zone, support the fatigues of such a navigation which requires so much hardiness and activity.

Taméaméa was the owner of numerous flocks, which had been produced by the animals left there by the first navigators; there were also at Woaho some horses of the Californian breed. Till these last years the natives and navigators have gained but little profit from the multiplying of this breed; they are but little in use for labour, and the chief is not disposed to give them up to strangers.

In spite of his advanced age, Taméaméa enjoyed, in January, 1819, an excellent state of health: so far from showing any symptoms of approaching dissolution, his exterior still bears the stamp of that prodigious strength with which he was endowed. He was completely habited after the European manner—after the manner of mechanics in the winter; his carriage is decent and correct; his physiognomy is marked by a dark and scrutinizing look. With him, gratified ambition seems to have yielded to insatiable avarice.

Those memorable events which have agitated the civilized part of the world, did not seem uninteresting to Taméaméa: he seemed to entertain a high idea of France, notwithstanding her late disasters. He inquired after the king and all the principal potentates.

A revolution was expected to take place after the death of Taméaméa; and his son Riorio, much unlike his father, did not appear to have inherited but a small share of his power and his qualities. They did not believe that he was destined to reign over the conquered islands, where the ambition of ancient families, and local animosities, kept under by the talents and power of the father, will be sure to revive when he will cease to exist. Riorio is also likely to experience a very formidable opposition on the part of Tamanon, his mother-in-law, the favourite wife of Taméaméa, and who is of a very powerful family. The dangers that menace this young prince, who is, however, endowed with many good qualities, seem likely to increase by the vexatious influence that some superficial notions of European customs have over his feeble judgment.

From the Ladies' Monthly Museum.

MONKISH SEVERITY.

A monk went to the house of a Mr. Delaval, who was then absent on a hunting party, but was expected to return to dinner. Among other dishes preparing in the kitchen was a pig ordered for Mr. Delaval's own eating. The monk cast a longing eye upon this, and notwithstanding having been informed for whom it was intended, cut off the head, and, putting it into a bag, made the best of his way towards the monastery. Delaval, on his return, being informed of this transaction, remounted his horse in anger, and set out in search of the offender; whom, overtaking about a mile off, he gave him such a chastisement with his staff, that he was hardly able to return to his cell. This monk dying within a year, his brethren ascribed his death to the beating, and charged Delaval with murder. Before the accused could obtain absolution, he was obliged to make over to the priory the manor of Elsig, in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, with several other valuable estates, and by way of making full satisfaction, he was ordered to set up an obelisk on the spot where he had chastised the monk; on the pedestal is engraved the following inscription—"O horrour! to kill a man for a pigge's head!"

BISHOP ATTERBURY.

In the debates on the Occasional Conformity and Schism Bills in the House of Lords, in December, 1718, they were very warmly opposed by Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, who said, he had prophesied last winter this bill would be attempted in the present session, and he was sorry to find he had proved a true prophet. Lord Coningsby, who always spoke in a passion, rose immediately after the bishop, and remarked, that one of the right reverends had set himself forth as a prophet; but, for his part, he did not know what prophet to liken him to, unless to that famous prophet Balaam, who was reproved by his own ass. The bishop, in reply, with great wit and calmness, exposed this rude attack, concluding in these words—"Since the noble lord hath discovered in our manner such a similitude, I am well content to be compared to the prophet Balaam; but my lords, I am at a loss how to make out the other part of the parallel: I am sure that I have been reproved by nobody but—his lordship." From that day, Lord Coningsby was ever afterwards called "Atterbury's pad."

LORD RUSSEL

By living too luxuriously, had quite spoiled his constitution. He did not love sport, but used to go out with his dogs every day only to hunt for an appetite. If he felt any thing of that he would cry out, "Oh! I have found it!" turn short round, and ride home again, though they were in the midst of the finest chase. He one day met a beggar, who entreated him to give him something, because he was almost famished with hunger. "A happy dog!" exclaimed his lordship, and actually envied him too much to relieve him.

Tales of the Heart, by Mrs. Opie.

Perhaps no writer of the present day possesses so fully as Mrs. Opie the power of interesting us by presenting us with vivid and natural portraits of human feelings and passions, as exhibited in domestic life. Other authors surprise, elevate, or dazzle our imaginations by romantic incident, splendid imagery, or the description of highly-wrought character, in scenes and situations remote from the habits of ordinary life; but she has achieved the far more difficult task of uniting our suffrages by narrating ordinary and probable events, in a manner at once true to nature, and yet novel and touching; while in the development of character, she displays such an accurate knowledge of the human heart, such justness of principle, and so much warmth of feeling, as excite at once our sympathy and admiration. Some little disappointment will be felt, however, by those who contrast the tales before us, with her earlier productions, for much as we find in them to praise, we are yet compelled to say, they are in many parts inferior to her former works. If, however, she lose in some respects by being compared with herself, there are few others by a comparison with whom she would not gain. The first tale, Love, Mystery, and Superstition, is very interesting; our sympathy is powerfully excited for the unfortunate Rinalda and Angela: but we must observe, Mrs. Opie has fallen into an error, when she speaks of the former as having taken his vows at seventeen; no monk can be professed previous to the age of twenty-one. The second tale, The Two Sir Williams, is a very pleasing domestic sketch; the supper scene is admirable, and has a very dramatic effect. The story of the Two Sins, is exquisitely written throughout; Ronald never for a moment loses his hold on our hearts. Nothing can be more exquisitely pathetic than the description of his feelings on leaving the paternal home, and on recovering his poor old parents; the contrast between him and his brutal brother is admirable. The catastrophe, though we were in some degree prepared for it, thrilled us with horror. The story of A Woman's Love, contains many striking passages; but it is upon the whole inferior, both in interest and pathos, to the generality of Mrs. Opie's productions. The continuation of it, A Wife's Duty, is much better written: the suffering wife, Helen Pendarves, is admirably drawn; it is one of this authoress's principal merits that she paints the feminine virtues in the brightest and the loveliest colours. The plot of The Opposite Neighbour, is ingenious and well wound up; but Evelyn's romantic stratagem is certainly inconsistent with the general tone of his character. The concluding tale, Benevolence and Selfishness, is delightfully written. Never did benevolence wear a more amiable form than that of Sir Edward Meredith. All the characters are, in fact, sketched in a masterly manner, and supported with the greatest spirit throughout. The style of the work has the same elegant and pathetic simplicity which distinguish Mrs. Opie's former productions.

SALUTING THE BRIDE.

If we may believe Dr. Taylor, "the present ceremony (now in fashion all over Europe), of '*saluting the Bride*,' is to be derived from the practice of the ancient Romans, among whom the husband and his relations used to salute the wife, in order to perceive whether she had been guilty of drinking wine, which they made equally criminal with adultery. The Doctor concludes: 'If my reader was acquainted with but half the passages I could produce, wherein modern customs, though somewhat alienated from their original design and institution, retain however so much of their old feature or complexion, as to claim an indisputable relation to some Roman or Grecian solemnity, he would not be startled, as perhaps he was, at the first mention of this opinion. I was tempted here to lay before him an instance or two of this sort, of which I have by me a plentiful collection; but was checked upon the reflection that I but very lately took him out of the road to show him a prospect, and therefore rather chose to pro-

secute my journey, to which it is possible he may now have no objection.'"

[*Gent. Mag.*

On Brittleness of Bones in Cold Weather.

Mr. Urban,

It is a common notion, and in all parts, for I have heard it from many mouths, and in many places, that our bones are brittlest in frosty weather. This is a difficult matter, at best, to prove, and I imagine the observation has nothing to support it, but the frequency of fractures at such seasons. But now, Sir, if this be the whole foundation of it, this one particular will scarcely bear the weight that is laid upon it. For first, men are most liable to slip then, and consequently more fall than common. Secondly, falls are violent upon sudden slips. Thirdly, the limbs are often thrown into unnatural positions by such slips; and lastly, the ground in frosts is hard, and impinging with force against it when it is in such a state, must endanger the bones more than at any other time, and occasion the more fractures. In short, the external constitution of the air may have effect on the surface of our bodies, as to the pores, and the affections of heat and cold, but that the internal *stamina* of the bones and the substance of *them* should be altered in respect of cohesion, of induration on one part, and pliableness on the other, is a thing difficult to conceive. And quære, whether a degree of cold sufficient to effect that would not immediately induce death? For my part I cannot apprehend how the flesh, the *periosteum*, the blood, and even some of the vital parts could stand it. I will not pretend to say how the case may be with a dry, dead, uncovered bone, lying exposed to the ambient air in a severe frost; but surely, if the substance of a human bone can be so penetrated by an excess of cold, as to suffer an alteration in the cohesion of its parts, the marrow of such bone must be in a manner damaged and destroyed.

It is true the bones of old people do break with the greatest facility, and from the slightest causes, as appears from the two cases of Archbishop Secker and Dr. Bathurst, reported in an old number of your magazine; but then this fragility may be supposed to arise from an internal cause, to wit, the aridity or dryness of old men's bones, tenacity or toughness depending mainly upon a competent degree of moisture. And this, I presume, was the case with that great man, Archbishop Laud. At 54 years of age, his Grace strained, or rather broke the great ligament of his foot, the tendon Achilles, and when he was 68, as he was walking up and down his chamber at the Tower, the sinew of his right leg gave a great crack, without any slip or treading awry, and brake asunder in the same place where he had broken it before. His Grace, however, recovered it, and could go strongly upon plain ground. See his Diary, p. 42, 63, 191. The event, you observe, was not very bad, but that is not the meaning of my introducing this fracture; for my design is to show, by this, how easily dryness in the limbs of old persons disposes them to break. But this, I apprehend, is by no means the case with our bones in frosty seasons, which I presume are so fenced and secured against the external injuries of weather, by the *periosteum*, the flesh, and the skins, that one cannot suppose them to be drier in hard weather than at other times. I incline to believe upon the whole, that the bones cannot be affected by any severity of weather less than what would cause death.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

Gent. Mag.] T. Row.

Adam's Beard.

Bentley, in a note on the 4th book of Paradise Lost, is surprised that Milton, in his description of the person of Adam, should omit his beard. Newton imagines it was because the painters never represent our first parent with one. But neither the critic nor the good bishop were aware of the ignominy which the beard of man lies under. Helmont gravely asserts, that Adam was created an handsome young man, without a beard: but that his face was afterward degraded with hair, like the beasts, for his disobedience; and Eve, being less guilty, was permitted to retain her smooth face. The fantastic philosopher also adds this extraordinary remark, that, if an angel appears with a beard, you may depend on it that he is an evil one, for no good angel ever wore a beard.

[*Gent. Mag.*

Avarice in Old Age.

Mr. Urban,

The *miser* in the play is generally, I believe always, an *old man*, and we commonly use the expression, *an old miser*. Indeed there seems to be something extremely unnatural for young men to be

guilty of this vice, though no doubt some are. However, the frailty is not so observable in them, because the gaiety, the vanity, usually incidental to that age, in some degree, and as it were by fits and starts, renders the foible much less conspicuous. I do not pretend, Mr. Urban, to palliate or excuse this odious and unsociable vice in either old or young. And yet something may be said in favour of old age, so far at least as to account for its being more peculiar to that time of life, and by way of assigning reasons why, from the nature of things, it may be so.

1st, *Care* naturally grows with years. Experience teaches the old stager the value of money, which, in the common way, is not generally apprehended by young men, who are apt to launch out into extravagance, and often to their hurt or ruin. Hence Virgil uses the expression *tristisque Senectus*, not so much, I apprehend, from the infirmities that commonly attend the time of life, as from the black and corroding, the incessant and brow-wrinkling care, which in a manner always accompanies it, disposing the party to anxiety, to scraping, and the most penurious parsimony; cares, which generate money indeed, but bring their punishment along with them, and therefore are emphatically termed by the poets *ultrices curæ*.

But the principal thing, 2dly, is, that the old man has, in effect, should he come to want, nothing to have recourse to, but his money. Labour he cannot, for that day is passed. And he has little to recommend him any other way; his person is altered, and disgusting; his accomplishments, whatever he had formerly been possessed of, are all flown and gone; insomuch that want is a formidable, an insuperable evil to *him*, whilst a young man can cheerfully disregard it, can run any where to avoid it, and has a thousand remedies against it. One scarce, methinks, can wonder, that an attention to money, though blameable enough, no doubt, when carried to excess, and to a mistrust of God's providence, should so often be seen to assault the fearful breasts, and the helpless state of the aged, who think they have nothing else to trust to. Many, no doubt, on this very account, will not use the good things they are possessed of.

Is not, 3dly, the old man too often sensible, that money is the thing now, that makes him valued and esteemed, courted and attended? That were he once poor, contempt and neglect would immediately follow? whence it is, that the only method he has, as he thinks, of attaching people to him, is by the credit and reputation of his wealth, which consequently, and under this persuasion, he continues to preserve, and even to increase, though he has already one foot, as it were, in the grave.

We have known many a one, Mr. Urban, who has had the ambition of dying worth a certain sum; a plum, or perhaps two plums. This he never dreamed of at first setting out, but now he finds it within his reach, and so,

"Crescit amor nummi quantum ipsa pecunia crescit;"

and the consequence of such a view, when once it enters a man's thoughts, must be perpetual avarice and rapacity, even to the last hour. The man's honour is at stake, and his reputation, he supposes, will suffer, if he acquires not so many, or so many thousands; a scheme, that never invades the youthful mind.

It appears to me, from these considerations, that for a truly sordid mind, devoid of all religion, (and it is scarcely possible, that such a disposition should be impressed with any right notion of religion, either towards God or man) to grow daily more and more anxious and solicitous about his pelf, is a thing so far from being an object of wonder, that on the contrary it is no other, though in itself so detestable, than what may be naturally expected and accounted for.—I am, Sir, yours,

Gent. Mag.] T. Row.

The following extract of a letter from General Washington to the Marquis de Chastellux, published in the New York Literary Journal, shows some of the effects that would be caused by liberal doctrines in regard to commerce.

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"It gives me great pleasure to find by my last letters from France, that the dark clouds which overspread your hemisphere, are yielding to the sunshine of peace. My first wish is to see the blessings of it diffused through all countries, and among all ranks in every country, and that we should consider ourselves as the children of a common parent, and be disposed to acts of brotherly kindness toward one another; in that case restriction of trade would vanish. We should take your wines, your fruit, and the surplusage of such articles as our necessities or convenience might require, and in return give you our fish, our oil, our tobacco, our naval stores, &c.; and in like manner should exchange produce with

other countries, to the reciprocal advantage of each: and as the globe is large, why need we wrangle for a small spot of it? If one country cannot contain us, another should open its arms to us. But these halcyon days (if they ever did exist) are now no more. A wise Providence, I presume, has decreed it otherwise; and we shall be obliged to go on in the old way, disputing, and now and then fighting, until the great globe itself dissolves."

The Rev. Dr. Morse, under a commission from the President of the United States, for the purpose, we learn, has visited the Indian tribes on the northern borders of our country, as far as Green Bay —a tour, out and in, of upwards of 3,000 miles; and has collected much valuable information for the use of the government. He is now in this city, for the purpose of making his report, in part, to the President, and to collect some documents and information necessary to complete the plan on which he proposes to make his report. We are informed that, after a brief narrative of his tour, he will give a table, comprising, as accurately as they can be ascertained, the names of all the Indian tribes within the territories of the United States, including those west of the Rocky Mountains, on Columbia River, and along the shores of the Pacific Ocean—the number of souls in each of these tribes, and the places of their residence. This table is to be followed with a brief account of what is known of the character, condition and country of each tribe: of the degrees of civilization to which numbers of them are advanced; and of their dispositions generally to receive the blessings which are offered for their acceptance. The report is to conclude with remarks and suggestions of plans for removing existing obstacles and evils, and of promoting and accomplishing, in the most effectual manner, the benevolent views of the government. The whole is to be illustrated by a map, exhibiting the places of residence of the several tribes. This report, which is in forwardness, will be completed in the course of a few weeks, and presented to the President.

Less than a third part of the route prescribed in this commission has been travelled over by Dr. M. It is his intention, we learn, to complete the whole of the original design with all practicable despatch. [*Nat. Int.*

We copy the following puff from a Baltimore paper, as one of the best we have lately seen.

A CARD.

To the Baltimore Patrons of Science.

With much cordiality, M. L. Weems presents his thanks to his numerous friends in Baltimore, for their very liberal support of his late undertaking, "LAVOISNE'S GRAND ATLAS OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY." In return, he confidently hopes they will derive from it many more advantages than one. To teach the unlearned to *learn*, and the learned to *recollect*, (and that too in a much shorter way than either of them ever dreamed of,) is but an *inferior* object of this admirable work. Its far higher aim is to improve LITERARY TASTE, to exalt the pursuits, and thus to preserve the morals of our youth. The *mode* of accomplishing this grand desideratum is familiarly illustrated by Dr. Franklin. When that great philosopher was asked by a friend, how he should save his small beer, placed in his back yard, from nocturnal spoliations of neighbours, he replied, "*put a barrel of good wine by the side of it*"—meaning, that nobody with the smack of Madeira on his palate, would ever think of touching small beer. So, let our young readers of LAVOISNE but get a relish for the *nectar* of science, and they will equally loath the small beer of sensuality and *dandyism*, which, indeed, like glow-worms in the night, make a shine only through the absence of brighter pleasures.

Extract from the Message of the Governor of Virginia to the General Assembly, delivered on the 4th inst.

"The census taken this year by order of the government of the United States, pursuant to the constitution, is not yet completed, and the result, as it respects the population of Virginia cannot now be made known. The general anxiety to ascertain the actual relation of numbers between the free citizens of the state, and that distinct and inferior race, so unfortunately intermingled with them, must necessarily remain somewhat longer unterminated. The deplorable error of our ancestors in copying a civil constitution from savage Africa, has fixed upon their posterity a depressing burden, which nothing but the extraordinary benefits conferred, and the great energy infused by our happy climate, could have enabled us to support through so great difficulties, and at the same time to maintain for so long a period our lofty station in the union. The want of moral motives and defect of intelligence, the too common absence of settled character, that marks the race degraded by slavery, if not by nature,

which supplies so large a majority of the labourers of one state, have deprived us, in a melancholy degree, of the immense advantages for enlightened agriculture, manufactures and commerce, in vain offered by our fertile soil, our long and deep rivers, the abundance of minerals, and the extraordinary frequency of fortunate localities. We have been outstripped in these important pursuits of civilized man, by states, to which nature has been far less bountiful. The unnecessary quantity of labour thoughtlessly wasted among us in unproductive menial offices, forms a heavy deduction from the sum of our productive means, which the contemptible insufficiency of the labourers themselves could alone induce us to make. The steady exertions of ingenious skill, the dextrous management of complicated machinery, can never be relied on from such agents, and the deficiency of those of a superior character, whose places are unfortunately thus pre-occupied, must keep us long dependent on others for the comforts which refined life requires. To these disadvantages, by which the value of the general industry is so much diminished, may be added an enormous amount of waste annually committed, through ignorance, apathy and want of a responsibility, supported not by fear, but by reason and self-interest, which no mechanical habits given by education, can ever sufficiently replace. It is painful to calculate what *might* have been under other circumstances, the amount of the general wealth in Virginia, or the whole sum of the means of comfortable existence and happiness possessed by all her inhabitants, at the expiration of two centuries, with the energy her free citizens have displayed, and the advantages nature had bestowed."

Courtship.—Should a man in purchasing a horse, praise it up to the skies, could he then expect to have it at his own valuation? So in courtship, when the poor lover overrates the charms of his mistress by flattery and exaggerated praise, can he wonder that the lady does not think that he bids high enough for so much excellence? and does not take sighs and tears as a part of the purchase?

Argument.—We often find persons in conversation take up their opponent's illustration, and make it the ground of their argument. This seems an error not less ridiculous than he would commit, who should attempt to shave the chin he sees reflected or illustrated in the glass instead of his own.

Dull Men do well in society. They cement the various characters, and keep them close together, as they never raise suspicions of exerting finesse to effect their purposes. Lead, the heaviest of metals, is made use of to join together and solder the varieties of metals which require an ornament superior to what lead itself could aspire to.

Singular Abuse.—Men are very apt to abuse the religious opinions of those with whom they chance to have any quarrel. I remember a man who underwent a *dry* beating from his adversary, and called him an Anabaptist rascal ever afterwards. Would it not have been more appositely said, if he had suffered a *ducking* from him?

Prosers.—There are men, often of inaccurate mind, but fond of talk, and when their memories fail, they borrow of their imaginations. A shepherd lad told his master that he had seen a hundred and five crows in one of his fields. "You cannot count so many," replied the farmer. "Possibly not, Sir," replied the boy, "but I counted five, and I dare say there were an hundred beside."

Poetry.

STANZAS

On reading an Account of the Re-Interment of King Robert Bruce.

Alike the mean and mighty fall,
The prince and peasant die;
Time, like a tyrant, levels all,
And sweeps unheeding by!
Down to oblivion and decay
The countless thousands pass away,
For one, whose honours high
Remain—a morning star—to shine,
With light undying, and divine.

True—that the world is sunk in crime;
That error walks abroad;
Yet Virtue ever soars sublime
O'er every pressing load.
A cloud may veil the Lord of Day,
But glows he, when it glides away,
Less brightly than he glowed?
Or can opposing tempests bend
The giant from his journey's end?

Thus is it with the great in soul,
The mighty of our race,
Who onward pant to glory's goal,
Their only resting place.
Amid the sapient, and the brave,
Thy destiny survives the grave,
Nor e'er shall time efface
The halo round thine honoured urn,
Immortal chief of Bannockburn!

Five centuries have rolled along
In silence o'er mankind,
Since thou, in youthful vigour strong,
As danced upon the wind
Thy war crest on the battle eve—
Did'st to the chin De Bohun cleave,
And all the hosts behind
Shouted, and hostile camps did view
With wonder, and with trembling too!

But yet thy fame hath nobly stemmed
The cataract of years;
In Honour's sacred temple gemmed
Thy kingly worth appears;
For thou wert not of those, who take
Delight in impious war, and slake
Their wrath in human tears;
So, when the sword was sheathed, thy mind
Was gentle as the summer wind.

Thy Scotland shall forget thee not,
Brave champion of her right!
Thou art her praise; to every Scot
A glory and delight;
And countless thousands yet to come
Shall kneel in reverence at thy tomb,
And kindle at the sight,
To think that there the dust remains
Of him that broke his Country's chains!

THE POET'S HOUR.

When day is gone, and clouds are low,
And flowers are honey dew,
And thro' the mist the small stars show
Their eyes of infant blue;
And homeward wing the turtle doves,
Then comes the hour the poet loves.

For in the twilight curtain'd round,
He hears the echoes all,
Of rosy vale, or grassy mound,
Or distant waterfall;
And shapes are on his dreaming sight
That keep their beauty for the night.

And still, as wakes the sudden breeze
The forest's purple shade,
He hears on Italy's sweet seas
The silver serenade;
Or to the fields of battle borne,
Swells at the sound of trump and horn.

The star that peeps the leaves between
To him is but the light,
That from some lady's bower of green
Shines to her pilgrim knight;
Who felt her spell around him twine,
And hastens home from Palestine.

Or if some wandering peasant's song
Comes sweetened from the vale,
He hears the pall'd and mitred throng
Around the altar's pale;
Or sees the dark-eyed nuns of Spain,
Bewitching, blooming, young—in vain.

And thus he thinks the hour away,
In sweet, unworldly folly:
And loves to see the shades of grey,
That feed his melancholy;
Finding sweet speech and thoughts in all,
Star, leaf, wind, song, and waterfall.

THE COTTAGE MAID.

From a Collection of Original Welsh Airs, published by G. Thomson, F. A. S.

I envy not the splendour fine
That glitters in sir Watkyn's hall;
I ask not for the gems that shine
On lady fair at Wynnstay ball:
I wish but for a riband gay,
Which I might on a Sunday wear;
Unseen which I might kiss, and say,
'Twas Owen's gift from Wrexham fair.

O, Owen! I believe thee kind,
And love is surely on thy tongue—
But would that I could read thy mind,
For hope betrays the maiden young.
Last night I saw thee loth to part,
I watch'd thy looks—so bright the moon—
And know not but my simple heart
Might own too much, or own too soon.

Unhappy fate of doubtful maid!
Her tears may fall, her bosom swell;
But even to the desert shade
She never must her secret tell.
And is it love—his softer mien?
And is it love—his whisper low?
And does he much, or nothing mean?
Ah! she that loves, how can she know!

With Owen I the dance have led,
And then I thought that sure he seem'd
To dance with lighter, livelier tread—
Oh! was it so—or have I dream'd?
To-day he goes with merry glee,
And all are going to the fair—
O, may I by some riband see,
He thought of one that was not there!

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

Some members of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society have recommended the republication of the following essay. It would have been more useful had it been earlier, but we are informed that it is not yet too late to have some practical effect.

Corn Grubs, or Cut Worms. Fall Ploughing.

Belmont, August 8th, 1815.

This season has been remarkably unpropitious to our crops of Indian corn; which, however, are far better than we could have

expected; and will, on the whole, be tolerably plentiful, (although, in many parts of our country, they have been greatly injured,) if we should be favoured with a mild autumn. The ravages of the grub, or cut worm, have been uncommonly ruinous. The prevention of this scourge, so often deplored, and so seldom guarded against, is always in the power of every provident farmer, and, if he will not prevent, he ought not to complain of, the injuries to which the corn crops are subject. The preventive is *fall ploughing;* which exposes the progeny of the grub to destriction, by frosts, and other inclemencies of the winter. During a period of more than fifty years, I have been personally engaged, or constantly interested, in practical farming; and I can truly say, that I never suffered any material injury from the grubs; when I turned up my fields intended for corn, in the fall of the year I generally harrowed the fallow: and, previously thereto, often rolled down the sod. When I could procure lime at that season, or early in the spring, I was, and am still, in the habit of spreading it on the corn fallow; and although this is a destroyer of the nascent grub, yet the effect was manifest, without the application of lime. If fall ploughing yielded no other benefits, (and numerous are its advantages,) one would imagine, that this would be sufficient to recommend it to general adoption. Yet, although the practice has been, of late years, more commendably attended to than formerly; it is really deplorable, that it is not more universally followed. Merely ploughing is salutary; but the harrowing, and thereby, completely separating the clod; and breaking up, or exposing to the influence of frosts, the depositories of vermin, is equally essential. Besides, the sod being thus separated, and access of air prevented, by harrowing, (and if previously rolled, the better,) the weeds and grass do not, in any great degree, vegetate in the spring. If undisturbed, and they may so remain if the seed be shallow planted, these pests become decayed, or rotted; and assist, instead of impeding, the growth of the crop.

I have made extensive inquiries this season; and I have found, almost universally, that those who fall ploughed judiciously and in due time, escaped the grub. In some instances where the field was only partially ploughed, or the work ill managed, the grub was more or less injurious; and I considered these as exceptions to the general fact, without shaking the general principles of the practice. In some fields, only partially fall ploughed, the superior vigour of the corn, is strikingly perceptible.

Ploughing, or backing up, a few furrows in the spring; and leaving balks for the worms to feed on, may have partial advantages; but this is a miserable substitute for fall ploughing; and is a disgusting proof of negligent and slovenly farming, although it may sometimes succeed. I am your very obedient servant,

RICHARD PETERS.

ROBERTS VAUX, *Sec. to the Philad. Soc. for Promoting Agriculture.*

A Discourse read before the Essex Agricultural Society, in Massachusetts, February 21, 1820; *suggesting some improvements in the agriculture of the county. By Timothy Pickering, president of the society.*

(Continued from p. 380.)

On Indian Corn and Winter Grain.

The ancient, and to this day the general practice, in cultivating Indian corn, has been to plant it in squares, and in the course of its growth to draw up earth about the stems of the plants, forming *hills*, under the idea of supporting them against strong winds; but the necessity or utility of this practice has long been doubted. I have sometimes cultivated Indian corn without raising any hills about the plants; and, from the result, am satisfied that hills are not necessary. If, indeed, winter wheat, or rye, is to be sown among the corn, at its last dressing, I think the hilling must be injurious: for the richer mould being drawn up into hills, the intervals are robbed of what is requisite to produce an even crop.

I am aware that some intelligent farmers consider it bad husbandry to sow winter grain among Indian corn—to *double-crop* the ground. But if this be *rich*, and in *fine tilth* by deep ploughing before the corn crop is put in, and good and clean tillage accompanying its growth, I can conceive no solid objection to the practice. With us, the early sowing of winter grain is of the first importance, to insure a full crop, early ripe, and most secure from mildew. The husbandry of Mr. Ducket, already described, justifies the practice. I know it is already common amongst us; but without the *deep tillage* which enabled him to put in seven crops with only four ploughings. With such complete tillage, of a soil so enriched as to yield forty or fifty bushels of Indian corn to the acre, grown on a level, without hills or ridges; and if, in harvesting the corn, it be cut

close to the ground; I see no reason why grass seeds may not properly be sown on the winter grain, in the spring. In this way may be obtained a crop of Indian corn the first year—a crop of wheat or rye the second year—and hay the third and fourth years; and all from one deep ploughing, and a handsome culture of the Indian corn.

By the early sowing of winter grain among Indian corn, it quickly vegetates, and sends forth numerous branches; and soon covering the ground, prevents or checks the growth of weeds. Probably, too, the plants, acquiring so much strength by early sowing (for the roots must multiply and extend in proportion to the growth above ground) are less liable to be winter-killed.

On Live Stock.

I have now to present to your notice the other of the Three Celebrated English Farmers, described by Arthur Young—Mr. Bakewell—the most distinguished improver of live stock, on principles of his own, in Great Britain. "The principles he began upon (says Mr. Young) were *fine forms, small bones, and a true disposition to make readily fat,* which is indeed inseparable from small bones, or rather fine bones, and fine forms, or true symmetry of the parts. "Before Bakewell's day, the rules which governed breeders of live stock, Mr. Young pronounces "a tissue of absurdities."

He began his improvement of sheep, by selecting from the best in his neighbourhood. And so little had any correct principle of improvement been known or regarded, that a guinea or half a guinea extraordinary would give Mr. Bakewell the choice of any sheep in any flock. And his uncommon sagacity enabled him, by the best selections and judicious crossings, to form a breed distinguished above all others, for *the disposition to fatten, early maturity, a form indicating strength of constitution, weight in the most valuable parts,* with *lightness of offals.* Mr. Young expresses his opinion, that there is not a breed of any sort of live stock in Great Britain, that does not derive its improvement from the skill, knowledge and principles of Mr. Bakewell. Another eminent agriculturist declares (and Mr. Young does not think he exaggerates) "that Mr. Bakewell enabled those who followed his ideas, to produce two pounds of mutton where only one was produced before."

Mr. Young adds, that Bakewell was the most careful feeder of stock that he ever met with, and who made his food go the farthest. To horses and cattle in stalls he did not permit more than a handful of hay to be given at a time; and the same economy was used in all other feeding. But his stocks were so large as to require one or more persons to be appropriated to that service. This practice, on our small farms, and with our small stocks, cannot be fully adopted; but it may be imitated, in some degree, during the season (winter) most requiring such attention. By feeding them in this manner, the cattle will doubtless *eat more,* but they will *waste less:* so that while, in the whole, no more fodder will be consumed, the stock will be put into much better plight.

Cleanliness, also, will materially contribute to the health and thriving of stock. The common cattle stalls of our country are so ill-contrived, and so straitened in their dimensions, that the cattle are constrained to lie down, in part in their own dung. This dries and forms a thick coat on their hind quarters, from which they are not relieved till they shed their hair in the spring. They are thus rendered *uncomfortable:* to be *uncomfortable* is to suffer some degree of *pain;* and no one will suppose that animals in *pain* can *thrive,* or *preserve their plight,* with the same food, equally with others perfectly at ease. Even hogs, though prone to wallow in the mire, in warm weather, are always pleased with a dry bed, and thrive best when kept clean. I have somewhere read an account of an experiment made with two, confined in separate pens, and fed exactly alike: one was suffered to be constantly foul with the mire of his sty; the other, washed every day, and kept clean, far outstripped the former in thriving.

It may be useful to add some further information on live stock, from the writings of Sir John Sinclair, president of the British Board of Agriculture. He proposed to a gentleman in England, (Thomas A. Knight, Esq.) who is eminent for his knowledge and accurate observations relative to plants and animals, some questions concerning live stock. In one of his answers he says—"I have found the food animals generally require, to keep them in proper condition, is much more nearly proportioned to their *height* and *length,* than to their *weight.*" In confirmation of this opinion, he adds, that one of his neigh-

bours made a comparative experiment with the Devon and Hereford cows; and though fond of the former for their neatness, he gave them up, because "they would not nearly live upon the same food which supplied animals *stouter* and *more compact*, of the same weight."

To the question, "What is the best shape for feeding well with little food?" Mr. Knight answers—"the more deep and capacious the chest, and the shorter and lower any animal is, relative to its weight, the better adapted it will be to live and fatten upon little food; the more labour it will also go through; and I have always found the most short legged oxen to be the best labourers. Mr. Marshall also observes, in his Rural Economy of Gloucestershire, that the best labouring ox he ever saw had the shortest legs."

I will detain the society no longer than to make a few observations

On Orchards.

I advert to this subject for the purpose of suggesting the utility of propagating sweet apples.

After providing a due proportion of apples for the table and the ordinary purposes of cookery, I do not hesitate to express my opinion, that for all other uses, sweet apples are entitled to the preference. The best cider I ever tasted in this county, was made wholly of sweet apples. They afford also a nourishing food to man and all domestic animals. What furnishes a more delicate repast than a rich sweet apple baked and eaten with milk? I recollect the observation made to me by an observing farmer, before the American revolution, that nothing would fatten cattle faster than sweet apples. Mentioning this, a few years since, to a gentleman of my acquaintance in an adjoining state, he informed me, that he was once advised to give sweet apples to a sick horse. Happening then to have them in plenty, the horse was served with them, and he soon got well: and continuing to be fed with them, he fattened faster than any other horse he had ever owned (and he had owned many) that was fed with any other food.

Mentioning to the same gentleman, what I had long before heard, that a good molasses might be made of sweet apples, he confirmed the fact by an instance within his own knowledge: and further expressed his opinion, (and I have not known a man whose practical judgment was entitled to more respect,) that it would not be difficult, by forming orchards of sweet apples, to supply molasses for the general consumption of the United States. I have never tasted any sweet apple molasses; but I suppose it has not (nor has honey) the rich sweet of molasses from the sugarcane; yet, for family uses in general, it would be a useful substitute for the latter. The process in making it I suppose to be very simple. The apples being ground, and the juice (or cider) expressed, at the cider mill, it is immediately boiled, (that is, before any fermentation takes place) and the scum being taken off as it rises, the boiling is continued until the liquor acquires the consistence of molasses.

Sweet apples are of different degrees of sweetness. Those of the richest kinds should be chosen for the purpose of making molasses. But in grafting, the scions should be taken (as they ought to be for all kinds of fruit) not from old worn out trees, but from those whose originals are in full health and vigour. For it has been satisfactorily ascertained in England (and proofs of it are not wanting in our own country) that fruit trees have their infancy, (springing from seeds) youth, maturity, and old age; and that when they have reached this last stage, it is in vain that attempts are made to continue them. Or if the scions take, and grow for a few years, they are unproductive, and soon decay. The reason is plain: every scion is a part of the tree from which it is taken; and if this be in a state of decrepitude, so will be the scion; and although grafted on a youthful, thrifty stock, it will be of no avail.

Foreign Literature and Science.

Compiled for the National Recorder.

Preservation of animal bodies by means of wood vinegar.—Mr. Stolza, apothecary at Halle, has discovered a method of purifying vinegar from wood, by treating it with sulphuric acid, manganese and common salt, and afterwards distilling it over. For this method he has obtained a prize from the Royal Society at Gottingen. This gentleman has likewise verified the method proposed by professor Menike in 1814, of preserving meat by means of vinegar from wood, and by continued treatment with the same acid, has converted bodies into mummies.

Portable *Gas Lamps* have been contrived by David Gordon, of Edinburgh, which it is probable will become quite common in

private families. They are made of strong copper, either spherical or cylindrical, with hemispherical ends. The gas from coal or oil is forced into them by a condensing pump, and is discharged through a stop-cock to the burner. A reservoir, of six inches diameter and nine inches high, filled with gas condensed by twenty-five atmospheres, will burn six hours, and afford a light equal to five candles of six to the pound. If the gas be obtained from oil, such a lamp will burn twelve hours. A sphere, twelve inches in diameter, will contain sufficient gas for two Argand lamps, equal to twelve candles, burning six hours with coal gas or twelve hours with gas from oil. Such lamps can be filled with very little expense or trouble, in every town where there is a public manufactory of coal gas. [*Edinb. Journ.*

Dr. Wollaston has acertained the existence of potash in sea water. It is in the state of sulphate, and constitutes rather less than 1-2000th part of the water. [*Ib.*

The iron passage boat on the Forth and Clyde canal, constructed under the direction of Henry Creighton, esq. formerly of Soho, has an extreme length of 60 feet, beam 13 feet, and depth 5 feet. With 200 passengers, it draws 48 inches of water. The weight of iron is 12½ tons, rather less than that of a wooden vessel of less internal dimensions. It is found to be more easily tracked than a wooden boat. [*Ibid.*

The city of Glasgow is supplied with water from the Clyde. This stream is commonly very turbid, but the water filters through a body of sand into a well on the left bank of the river. Into this well dips a *flexible* iron tube, which passes across the river, lying on its bottom. Three engines are employed on the other side to raise the water, two of 36 inch cylinders and 7 feet stroke, and one of 54 inch cylinder and 8 feet stroke. The flexible tube is the invention of the late celebrated J. Watt. He derived his first idea of it from observing a lobster's tail. [*Ibid.*

A fig tree, 7½ feet high, with a stem, 5½ inches in circumference, is growing luxuriantly in the hot-house of the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh, completely suspended from the ground, and without a particle of earth to nourish it. Water is thrown over it every day. [*Ibid.*

The abbe Haüy has contrived two very delicate and useful electrometers. 1st, A fine crystal of Iceland spar, attached to the end of a lever, and suspended by a silken thread, is electrified vitreously by simply pressing it between two fingers. It retains its excitement two hours, and is not much altered by dipping in water. 2d, A support is made of sealing wax, in which is stuck a needle that serves as the support and centre of vibration of a small bar of silver or copper, terminating in balls. This retains its excitement much longer than when suspended by silk. [*Fr. Journ.*

The most surprising and most honourable operation of surgery is, without any contradiction, that executed by M. Richerand, by taking away a part of the ribs and of the pleura. The patient was himself a medical man, and not ignorant of the danger he ran in this operation being had recourse to; but he also knew that his disorder was otherwise incurable. He was attacked with a cancer on the internal surface of the ribs and of the pleura, which continually produced enormous fungosities, that had been in vain attempted to be repressed by the actual cautery. M. Richerand was obliged to lay the ribs bare, to saw away two, to detach them from the pleura, and to cut away all the cancerous part of that membrane. As soon as he had made the opening, the air rushing into the chest, occasioned the first day great suffering and distressing shortness of breath. The surgeon could touch and see the heart through the pericardium, which was as transparent as glass, and could assure himself of the total insensibility of both. Much serous fluid flowed from the wound as long as it remained open, but it filled up slowly by means of the adhesion of the lung with the pericardium, and the fleshy granulations that were formed in it. At length the patient got so well, that on the twenty-seventh day after the operation, he could not resist the desire of going to the medicinal school to see the fragments of the ribs that had been taken from him, and in three or four days after he returned home, and went about his ordinary business.

[*Thompson's Ann.*

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Public Affairs.

CONGRESS.

On the 12th inst. in the Senate, the resolution for admitting Missouri into the union was passed and sent to the other house.

The House of Representatives on the same day resumed the consideration of *their* resolution for the same purpose. Mr. M'Lane, of Delaware, spoke two hours in its favour; Mr. Mallory, of Vermont, and Mr. Eustis, of Massachusetts, opposed it, at considerable length. On the 13th, Mr. Beecher, of Ohio, and Mr. Cook, of Illinois, spoke against the resolution. Mr. Lowndes replied, in a speech of two hours, to the arguments opposed to the passage of the resolution, and in vindication of the report of the committee. Mr. Sergeant rejoined, in a few explanatory remarks; and with his remarks the debate ended—not, however, before Mr. Gross, of New York, had intimated his intention to move the *previous question*, with a view to close the debate. The question was then taken, "Shall the resolution be engrossed, and ordered to be read a third time?" And on this question the yeas and nays were as follow:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbot, Alexander, Allen, of Tennessee, Anderson, Archer, of Maryland, Archer, of Virginia, Baldwin, Ball, Barbour, Bayly, Bloomfield, Brevard, Brown, Bryan, Burton, Burwell, Cannon, Cobb, Cocke, Crawford, Crowell, Culbreth, Culpepper, Cuthbert, Davidson, Earle, Edwards, of North Carolina, Fisher, Floyd, Garnett, Gray, Hall, of North Carolina, Hardin, Hooks, Jackson, Johnson, Jones, of Virginia, Jones, of Tennessee, Kent, Little, Lowndes, M'Coy, M'Creary, M'Lane, of Delaware, M'Lean, of Kentucky, Meigs, Mercer, Metcalf, Montgomery, T. L. Moore, Neale, Nelson, of Virginia, Newton, Overstreet, Parker, of Virginia, Pinckney, Randolph, Rankin, Reed, Rhea, Robertson, Settle, Shaw, Simkins, Smith, of New Jersey, Smith, of Maryland, B. Smith, of Virginia, A. Smyth, of Virginia, Smith, of North Carolina, Swearingen, Terrell, Trimble, Tucker, of Virginia, Tucker, of South Carolina, Tyler, Walker, Warfield, Williams, of Virginia, Williams, of North Carolina—79.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Allen, of Massachusetts, Allen, of New York, Baker, Bateman, Beecher, Boden, Brush, Buffum, Butler, of New Hampshire, Campbell, Case, Clagget, Clark, Cook, Crafts, Cushman, Dane, Darlington, Dennison, Dewitt, Dickinson, Eddy, Edwards, of Connecticut, Edwards, of Pennsylvania, Eustis, Fay, Folger, Foot, Ford, Forrest, Fuller, Gorham, Gross, of New York, Gross, of Pennsylvania, Guyon, Hackley, Hall, of New York, Hall, of Delaware, Hemphill, Hendricks, Hibshman, Hill, Hostetter, Kendall, Kinsey, Kinsley, Lathrop, Lincoln, Linn, Livermore, Maclay, M'Cullough, Mallory, Marchand, Meech, Monell, R. Moore, S. Moore, Morton, Moseley, Murray, Nelson, of Massachusetts, Parker, of Massachusetts, Patterson, Phelps, Philson, Plumer, Rich, Richards, Richmond, Rogers, Ross, Russ, Sergeant, Silsbee, Sloan, Southard, Stevens, Storrs, Street, Strong, of Vermont, Strong, of New York, Tarr, Tomlinson, Tompkins, Tracy, Upham, Van Rensselaer, Wallace, Wendover, Whitman, Wood—93.

And the resolution for the admission of the state of Missouri into the union was rejected.

Mr. Lowndes then rose, and said that he did not wish to be disrespectful to the majority of the House, as declared on the vote just taken, but he now felt it to be his duty to call on them, having rejected the resolution proposed by the committee of their appointment, to devise and propose to the House the means necessary to protect the territory, the property, and *all* the rights of the United States in the Missouri country.

The *Pennsylvania Legislature* have before them several important questions: the reduction of salaries—a proposal for a convention to alter the constitution—one for abolishing the auction monopoly, and one exempting the society of Friends from military service.

That the labourer is worthy of his hire, is a truth not peculiarly applicable to the point to establish which it was asserted, but bearing with equal force upon every condition of life. It remains for consideration upon every distinct question, what the hire should be. A popular opinion now is, that the salaries of our legislators and other

public officers are too high and should be lessened, and resolutions have passed the Assembly to reduce them, from 'that of the governor to the representatives.' So much honour is attached to public station, that if the pecuniary reward be equal to what is received for the exercise of equal ability in other employments, the best talents of the state will be offered to the service of the people. It would therefore seem expedient, that salaries should be so regulated, as to rise no higher than this mark. The present stipend of our chief magistrate will be acknowledged to be less than is earned not only by merchants, who join the service of capital to their own talents, but by lawyers and physicians of high standing, who employ no such auxiliary. Unless, then, we are prepared to say that the ability necessary to watch over the interests of a state, are less than those requisite for the attainment of eminence in the practice of law, which derives its dignity from a connexion with the pursuits of the statesman—unless we believe that the physician, who removes the obstructions that derange the order of nature in the animal economy, is greater than he whose office it is to point out the restrictions which destroy or delay the beneficent purposes of the God of Nature in regard to social prosperity and happiness—it is our opinion that we shall do wrong in making the salaries lower than they are; and that when it shall be expedient to change, it should be only to raise them.

The following resolution has been offered by Mr. Leiper, of Delaware:

Whereas by the third section of the ninth article of the constitution of this commonwealth, it is declared that "no human authority can in any case whatever control or interfere with the rights of conscience," and whereas this state has always pursued a liberal policy, which has rendered her conspicuous among the states of the union; a toleration which has produced happiness at home, and commanded respect abroad. In one particular, however, Pennsylvania is inferior to some of her sister states, and that *conscience*, which our constitution says no human authority should control, is menaced by compelling those to perform military duty who deem it repugnant to those higher duties which they owe to their God: therefore,

Resolved, That the committee on the militia system be instructed to report such a supplement to the existing militia laws, as will exempt those who, from motives of conscience, are opposed to bearing arms, from militia duty; or such a modification of the present laws, as will make it less repugnant to the feelings of that class of our fellow citizens.

Mr. Raguet has laid on the table of the Senate a resolution, declaring it expedient so to amend the auction law, that any citizen by paying for a license, and giving satisfactory security for the payment of the duties to the state, may carry on the business of an auctioneer.

"Time is the greatest innovator," and will probably free us from most of the restrictions that cramp the exertions of industry or talent. We shall probably in less than ten years, be ready for the repeal of the usury laws.

The evils of the present mode of appointing to office in this state, alluded to in the resolution of Mr. Lawrence, (see p. 388,) are well known to every Pennsylvanian. We cannot, however, wish that a convention should now be called to amend the constitution. It is better to suffer an established evil for a few years longer than to incur any risk of alteration without improvement. Such a patient course is not only fitted to produce an habitual respect for our Magna Charta, but affords a greater probability of final advancement in the practice of the true system of government. When the subject shall have been before the public for some years, and plans shall have been proposed and commented upon; when there shall be a great certainty that the best talents of the state will be called to this work by the people, then will be the time for the friends of reformation to call a convention.

The society of Friends are entitled to the liberty of conscience asked for them, upon many other grounds than the article in the constitution. From that exemplary sect, no child is educated at the public expense, and no pauper applies for pecuniary assistance. Not content, however, with thus fulfilling their part, they willingly pay their proportion of the tax for public instruction and for the poor, and are equal to the most zealous and benevolent in the promotion of every benevolent undertaking warranted by sound reason. Patient and persevering in all that they undertake, their ardour never requires the aid of novelty; and the abolition of the slave trade is a noble proof of the success of such qualities. To them Pennsylvania is indebted for most of what is good in her: let us not ungratefully continue to harass them on account of their refusal to take part in an idle parade; or to pay fines which we really believe serve little else than to increase drunkenness and debauchery.

We intend at some future time to return to this subject. Having had the best opportunities of forming an opinion of this society, we have found our respect for them

to "grow with our years, and strengthen with our strength," and shall always be glad to offer our feeble testimony in their favour.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in General Assembly met, the petition of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, respectfully showeth:

That your memorialists having formed a school for the education of the deaf and dumb, are desirous of making the general assembly acquainted with the necessity which they conceive exists for an establishment of the kind in Pennsylvania, as well as of requesting an act of incorporation, and soliciting such pecuniary aid as an enlightened and liberal legislature may be pleased to bestow, upon their primary labours.

But two seminaries for the instruction of those who are deprived of hearing and of speech, had hitherto been founded in the United States, and both of them located so remotely from Pennsylvania, as to render it impracticable for most, if any, of our fellow citizens to avail themselves of the benefits of those establishments. The necessity and utility of asylums, similar to those which reflect honour upon New York and Connecticut, were long ago perceived and admitted; and Pennsylvania would not have been dilatory in a work of such exalted charity, were it not for the difficulty of procuring teachers qualified for the interesting duty of imparting knowledge to those to whom voice and the sense of sounds are denied. This obstacle to the commencement of an institution so much desired, was happily removed by the beneficent devotion of a gentleman to the acquirement of the requisite information, who seems to have been fortunately offered to the acceptance of Pennsylvania, as an instructer of the deaf and dumb.

As soon as the fact of his talents and zeal for this useful occupation was promulgated, and his success in teaching the deaf and dumb ascertained, your memorialists engaged his services, and proceeded to collect funds for the immediate support of an asylum, in which are now rapidly progressing under his tuition 19 mute pupils, of whom 15 are gratuitously instructed and maintained. In addition to the number who already partake of the care of your memorialists, not less than 60 are known to reside in this vicinity, and judging from these data, it is fair to presume that an aggregate of 400 will be found in Pennsylvania, whose appeal to its considerate notice cannot be resisted.

In order to give durability to the establishment, and render it co-extensive with the claims which will be made upon it, from all parts of the commonwealth, an act of incorporation is essential; and your memorialists are emboldened to express their conviction, that as the benefits of the institution are freely offered to the state at large, the legislature will not withhold from it the necessary protection and bounty.

Whilst neighbouring commonwealths, and remote nations, are illustrating their philanthropy and philosophy, in conferring the blessings of intellectual improvement upon a portion of the human race, who, more emphatically than any other, invoke the sympathy and solace of their fellow beings, it cannot be doubted that Pennsylvania will sustain her character for benevolence, by imitating examples at once so dignified and kind. To the performance of these generous duties, states, as well as individuals, are called by the most sacred and pathetic invitations; and upon both, in the fulfilment of them, will surely be dispensed those precious rewards which only flow from God.

Signed by order and on the behalf of the institution,

William White,
President.
Robert Patterson,
Horace Binney,
Roberts Vaux,
N. Chapman,
Vice-Presidents.

Attested—Robert Walsh, Cor. Sec.

Philadelphia, Nov. 29, 1820.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

In pursuance of a resolution of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, passed June 20, 1820, authorizing a committee, consisting of the President and Curators, to publish such communications to the society as they may think proper—it was resolved by the committee, that the following be printed in the National Recorder.

By order of the Curators,
I. C. Jones.

ON THE CULTURE OF THE GRAPE VINE.

Read 21st November, 1820.

Philadelphia, 11th mo. 13th, 1820.

Curators of the Phil. Agric. Society,

Gentlemen—I know of no description of fruit, more delightful to the palate, than some species of the grape, and none, I believe, which is generally considered more wholesome; particularly some of the more delicate kinds of the European and other foreign grapes, which it has been considered almost impracticable to cultivate to advantage in this climate; excepting in some well protected and southernly

exposed situations, within the verge of our cities. I have heard of many attempts being made in the country, to cultivate the white sweetwater, and some other tender kinds, without success; and that it has nearly been given over as a hopeless case. Then how desirable it will be to those, who properly appreciate the culture of the vine, to have any information elicited upon the subject, having a tendency to obviate the difficulty. Judging from a plan I have been in the practice of pursuing these two years past, I am induced to believe we can succeed in the country nearly, if not quite, as well as those who have some of the most favourable situations in the city.

My plan is to trim my vines of the most tender descriptions in the fall; say from the first to the tenth of the Eleventh month (November); after which, take them down from the arbour to which they have been attached through the season, and lay them upon the surface of the ground: then cover them over with the adjoining soil, about four to five inches in depth: so let them remain till the next ensuing spring, say until after the severe frosts are past. I have let mine remain in that state until the ninth or twelfth of the Fourth month (April). On uncovering them, they have uniformly had a fresh, healthy appearance, and I have discovered no bleeding of the vines; to prevent which, I consider the fall trimming of importance, on account of the necessity of letting them remain in the covered state to so late a period in the season. If the vines should have attained a considerable size, some care will be requisite in laying them down, that a tolerably regular curve be formed near the bottom; otherwise, the woody fibres may be so much strained as to injure them; but this is easily prevented, by previously raising the earth round the foot of the vine, to the height of one, two, or three feet, according to its size.

To the adoption of this practice of covering with earth (as no greater degree of cold, can penetrate through the covering, than 32 degrees of Fahrenheit), I have attributed some handsome crops obtained, of my white sweetwater, and also some very fine bunches, this season, from a young vine called the Montesquieu, which I consider a remarkably fine grape, originally introduced from France.

I remain your friend,

ISAAC C. JONES.

P.S.—It will be best, to insure the vines from bleeding in the spring, to omit covering them for a week or ten days, after trimming in the fall, in order that the wounds occasioned by trimming may have time to dry, and the pores in some measure become closed by exposure to the atmosphere. I. C. J.

FOR THE NATIONAL RECORDER.

MILLET—CLOVER.

Messrs. Littell & Henry,

The last spring, the sowing *millet*, with a view to afford winter provender for cattle, and a great store of seed for poultry, swine and milch cows, was introduced in several parts of the country. A great object also was, to interrupt the course of general cropping; so as to recover the faculty in our soils to grow *clover*, as in former periods of our agricultural rotations. It is a most lamentable fact, that clover has failed, gradually, for several years past; insomuch that, in many parts, it has become unprofitable and almost worthless. The plaster has lost character, unjustly; because, to its inefficacy, the failure of the clover crops has been wrongfully attributed. Whereas, in truth, our lands are *clover sick*, (to use a country phrase,) and plaster has not its favourite subject to operate upon. In the Agricultural Almanac, (under the patronage of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society,) for 1821, it will be seen, that the same misfortune attends this plant in *England;* where large premiums are offered for remedies or substitutes. Whether *millet* will be of service in this regard, requires experience and time to prove. But of itself it is a most valuable crop; if the correct mode of culture were known. I find that its cultivation has been attended with such various success, or misfortune, that opinions concerning it are widely different; and, in the few instances I have known, discouraging for the most part. In one case, a farmer near the city, had about two acres sown with half a bushel of seed to the acre. A more captivating crop of any plant could not be exhibited. He has threshed about one-third of its product; and has thirty-three bushels of excellent seed; which he is expending profitably, not only for feeding his stock, but as an esculent in his family. Horses and horned cattle leave his best hay, to feed voraciously on the millet straw, or rather *hay*, which amounts to three and a half, or four tons per acre. Of course, his opinion is highly favourable. But in general it appears that other farmers are either preju-

diced, or have been unsuccessful. The seed, last spring, sold for two and three dollars per bushel; yet *now*, it is either out of demand, or sells for a trifling sum. It is therefore greatly to be desired, that some intelligent and experienced farmer, in either our own, or a neighbouring state, would give information of the mode of culture and character of this plant; so that, in the next season, farther experiments may be made. I had several acres sown with millet, and have no reason to complain; but have not succeeded to my wishes. The culture was in the hands of a tenant; and a storm injured the crop: nor was the field free from weeds of injurious qualities. Yet I have no doubt of its being highly valuable; and well worthy the attention of our farmers. Too many of them are in premature despair, when a failure in a first experiment occurs. I have heard, that the culture of *millet* is favourably prosecuted in *Bucks County*, and in some parts of *Jersey* and *New York*. Should this be the case, the cultivators of this crop would essentially serve the interests of agriculture, by giving the necessary information on the subject to our Agricultural Society, or in the public prints.

I know that experience in the time of cutting the crop, is essential. The seed should not be suffered to ripen entirely; because the hay is injured in this case, and the seed sheds profusely. It must be cut as soon as the seed begins to turn; and it will maturate in the mow, or stack.

RUSTICUS.

December 20, 1820.

SUGAR MAPLE.

Extract of a Letter from William Coxe, Esq. on the Cultivation of the Sugar Maple.

Burlington, March 7th, 1820.

Dear Sir—I understand that you have been directing your attention to the sugar maple, in the belief that it will be found an advantageous substitute for the several varieties of poplars, as a useful as well as ornamental tree; and that you are desirous of obtaining any information respecting its culture, or properties, that I may be able to communicate.

I have for some time been convinced that none of the poplars would prove a beneficial kind of timber to our farmers, from their disposition to extend their roots, and propagate suckers at a great distance, and from the offensive cotton which is produced by the Athenian and Georgia varieties; and I have made many experiments in the hope of discovering a tree, valuable for its timber, and clean and ornamental in its foliage, which could be propagated by seedlings. Among others, I planted the sugar maple, and am happy to find it one of the hardiest and handsomest trees, even on the light sandy soil around my house; capable of withstanding the severity of the drought of the last and preceding summers, the most intense that are recollected in our country. Of eighteen trees I lost but two, while the native chesnuts, raised from the nut, all perished; and little better success was experienced in a variety of trees planted on the same ground, such as the pine, sycamore, larch, spruce, &c. The American elm is thought to be a hardy tree, but with me it proved less so than the sugar maple. It is generally believed that all the varieties of the maple require a damp soil: this is the case with several of them, but the *acer saccharum* flourishes in a loamy wheat soil, in many districts of our western and northern country. The facility by which it may be propagated from the seed, renders its diffusion through our country, to any extent, very easy and cheap.

Few of our native trees are more useful for fuel, and the manufacture of potash; and as the means of affording a great and almost inexhaustible supply of sugar, it becomes an object of great importance, even to the farmer, who is desirous of transmitting a valuable inheritance to his children. It is my intention to plant this tree in the place of a line of the Athenian poplars, which I have been obliged to cut down after eight years luxuriant growth, from their injurious effect on the adjoining fields, by the extension of their roots to sixty and seventy feet, throwing up a little forest of suckers.

[*Rural Mag.*

Miscellany.

DEATH OF M. DE CONDORCET.

BY MADAME SUARD.

In the summer of 1794, M. Suard and his wife resided at a country house which they possessed at Fontenay, near Paris. We had spent a few days in Paris, says madame Suard, and on our return were informed that a man of strange appearance, in pantaloons, with a shabby cap and a long beard, had called twice at Fontenay, and was extremely disappointed at our absence. Next morning our maid servant entered my room

in great alarm. "Madame," cried she "a hideous fellow, with a prodigious beard, has just called, and I have conducted him to M. Suard."

I immediately suspected that it might be some proscribed person in quest of an asylum and protection, but took good care to conceal this conjecture from the maid, who was a patriot. On the other hand, I laughed at her fear of the stranger's long beard, and said, he was no doubt a messenger sent upon some errand or other by one of our acquaintance. She left the room, and presently M. Suard entered, and hastily desired me to give him the keys of the meat-safe and the wine, and some snuff. "Good God! what is the matter, my dear?" said I, handing to him what he asked for. "You shall know all," replied he, as hastily as before, "but stay here, you must not come up stairs." Such a prohibition was quite new to me, and he immediately added, "You will remain below—won't you?"—"Certainly I will," replied I, thoroughly convinced of his kind intentions. Two hours elapsed before I again saw M. Suard. I had meanwhile risen, and as my room had two windows, one of which looked towards the door of the court-yard, I observed a man going away, and though I could only see his back, still his gait and figure excited my profound pity. He was feeling, without turning round, in both his coat pockets for something that he did not find. When he was gone, M. Suard came and informed me that it was our old intimate friend M. de Condorcet. How heartily did I rejoice that I had not been the first who saw him! An involuntary exclamation of horror would have escaped me at his altered condition; it would have betrayed him, and plunged me into inexpressible distress. Apprehensive lest, as a proscribed person, he should bring trouble or even danger upon a generous wife who had afforded him an asylum and wished to detain him, he had quitted her in spite of her entreaties. The man who was once beloved by all who knew him, who was distinguished by the epithet of *the good, the kind*, and who had moved in the highest circles, had for three days endured hunger and thirst, and had no other bed than the quarries by the side of the road to Fontenay: there he had been wounded by the falling of a stone upon his leg, and without passport he durst not show himself any where except at our house. His situation could not but move me to the bottom of my heart, and all that had for some time past alienated us from each other was instantly forgotten.* The unparalleled friendship alone, which for sixteen years had embellished my life, and had surpassed almost every idea that I could form of this connexion, was now present to my remembrance.

M. Suard had furnished him with a plentiful meal and a supply of snuff, which had lately become an indispensable necessary to him. I had given a packet of the latter to M. Suard, and was extremely vexed to find this very packet lying upon the floor as I passed through the hall. This was what he had missed before he opened the door of the court yard; and I am convinced that it was this unlucky accident which induced him to go to the public house at Chamart in hopes of obtaining snuff, for he could not want other refreshments after the breakfast which he had taken. M. Suard had also given him some linen for his wounded leg, and a Horace to amuse him during the day, and had appointed him to call again at our house at dusk in the evening.

He had asked M. Suard, whether he could afford him an asylum. M. Suard replied that he could cheerfully sacrifice his own life for him, but that he could not dispose of mine; he would speak to me, though he was sure that my sentiments would correspond with his. Condorcet answered, "That I am perfectly convinced of." "But," observed M. Suard, "we live in a very bad *commune*, and if you were to remain here, you would yourself be exposed to the greatest danger, for we have but one maid servant, and her we cannot depend upon: still I hope, without risk either to you or my wife, to be able to lodge you for one night. I shall now go immediately to Paris to see some of our old friends, and, if possible, to procure a passport for you. Return at eight o'clock this evening, when the maid shall be out of the way; we will find you accommodation for the night, and then, provided with a passport, you will be able to go whither you think proper."

He acknowledged to M. Suard, that he apprehended most danger in the early part of the day, but was less concerned about the evening. He did not dissemble the pain which he felt on account of the course of public affairs, and the state of the party to which his ambitious hopes had induced him to attach himself; and I have it in my power to affirm, that he was certainly not

* It was the revolution which had estranged M. Condorcet, as well as M. Garat, from the Suard family.

the author of the scandalous paper against the king, which appeared in a periodical publication of the time, subscribed with his name. He had indeed permitted the publisher to use his name, but this man had abused that liberty in the most unwarrantable manner.

M. Suard walked to Paris and returned much fatigued, but in high spirits, because Cabanis, the physician, had procured him a passport. My joy was equal to his. We gave our servant permission to go out till ten o'clock; and fastened the door of the staircase leading to our apartments, so that there was no other way through them than the garden.

Condorcet was acquainted with this arrangement: it was intended that he should sleep on the sofa in the hall, whither provisions, wine, linen, snuff, and whatever else he could want, were carried. I told M. Suard that, as there was danger, (for the municipal officers might appear, and then we should all certainly have been lost,) I would share it and see the poor fugitive also: certain that my sincere pity would give him pleasure, M. Suard assented; but we waited in vain for him till ten o'clock. We thought it probable that he might be gone to Auteuil, where his wife and daughter resided; but on our paying a visit in the evening of the next day to a neighbour, he asked those about him, amongst whom was M. Suard, whether they had heard that the person found dead that morning in the prison of Bourg-la-Reine was supposed to be M. Condorcet? M. Suard was thunderstruck. "Pray sir," said he, "speak softly, that my wife may not hear you, and tell me what you know of the affair." He then related that on the preceding day, a stranger had entered the public house at Clamart (near Fontenay), and asked for eggs; shortly afterwards some municipal officers arrived, and being struck by his dress, they inquired who he was and whither he was going, and insisted on the production of his papers. As his answers betrayed embarrassment, and he had no passport to exhibit, they declared that they would take him to Bourg-la-Reine; but being unable to walk, he was conveyed thither in a cart, and found dead next morning in the prison. His shirt, of very fine linen, was marked with the letter C, and in his pockets was found some money and a Horace. These circumstances placed the matter beyond all doubt. The news of his deplorable fate, when afterwards communicated to me, cost me many bitter tears. [*New Month. Mag.*

BLACKWOOD'S EDINBURGH MAGAZINE.

After some remarks upon the Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews, the British Review, Pamphleteer, Retrospective Review, Monthly Review, Eclectic Review, British Critic, Edinburgh Monthly Review, and the Gentleman's Magazine—a writer in the New Monthly Magazine thus proceeds:

"Yet we must turn from his gentle work, to gaze on the bright aurora borealis —the new and ever varying northern light —*Blackwood's Magazine.* We remember no work of which so much might be truly said, both in censure and in eulogy; no work, at sometimes so profound, and at others so trifling; one moment so instinct with noble indignation, the next so pitifully falling into the errors it had denounced; in one page breathing the deepest and the kindliest spirit of criticism, in another condescending to give currency to the lowest calumnies. The air of young life—the exuberance both of talent and of animal spirits, which this work indicates, will excuse much of that wantonness, which evidently arises from the fresh spirit of hope and of joy. But there are some of its excesses which nothing can palliate; which can be attributed to nothing but malignant passions, or to the baser desire of extending its sale. Less censurable, but scarcely less productive of unpleasant results, is its practice of dragging the peculiarities, the conversation, and domestic habits of distinguished individuals into public view, to gratify a diseased curiosity at the expense of men by whom its authors have been trusted. Such a course, if largely followed, would destroy all that is private and social in life, and leave us nothing but our public existence. How must the joyous intercourses of society be chilled, and the free unbosoming of the soul be checked, by the feeling that some one is present who will put down every look, and word, and tone, in a note book, and exhibit them to the common gaze! If the enshading sanctities of life are to be cut away—as in Peter's Letters, or in the Letters from the Lakes, its joys will speedily perish. When they can no longer nestle in privacy, they will wither. We cannot, however, refuse to Blackwood's contributors the praise of great boldness in throwing away the external dignities of literature, and mingling their wit and eloquence and poetry with the familiarities of life, with an ease which nothing but the consciousness of great and genuine talent could inspire or justify. Most of their jests have, we think, been carried a little too

far. The town begins to sicken of their pugilistic articles; to nauseate the blended language of Olympus and St. Giles's; to long for inspiration from a purer spring than Belsher's tap; and to desire sight of Apollo and the muses in a brighter ring than that of Moulsey-hurst. We ought not to forget the debt which we owe to this magazine for infusing something of the finest and profoundest spirit of the German writers into our criticism, and for its "high and hearted" eulogies of the greatest, though not the most popular, of our living poets."

FROM BLACKWOOD'S EDINBURGH MAGAZINE.

ESSAYS AND SKETCHES, &c.

Another little volume, published in London this spring, which we think is pretty sure to survive the mass of new books, thrown out for the diversion of the reading public, is entitled "Essays and Sketches of Life and Character, by a Gentleman who has left his lodgings." We have seldom perused any similar volume with higher pleasure. It is written throughout with great facility and elegance, and bears every where indubitable marks of an upright and honourable mind, richly cultivated both by study and travel. The author is evidently both a gentleman and a scholar, and the only thing we have any objection to about him is that he is a WHIG. But of that more in the sequel. We rather think that we trace some resemblance between his style, both of writing and thinking, and that of a certain little book "On the Faults of English Manners," which we reviewed a good many months ago. But in this we may be mistaken, not having at present that interesting work at hand for the purpose of comparison.

There is no occasion for criticism when a single extract will suffice to convince our readers, that we are right in the high opinion we have expressed of our author's merits; and we prefer, chiefly on account of its brevity, the following sketch, entitled "National Character," which we are told was written at Paris in the year 1815.

"I was sitting one day in company with a Frenchman, a Spaniard, an Italian, an Englishman, and a German, when a conversation began upon the merits of their respective nations. As I found the argument growing warm, especially on the part of the Frenchman, who was pouring a shower of small talk upon the Englishman, and of the Italian, who was near touching the ceiling with his hands, in order to invoke the vengeance of Heaven upon the German, I bethought me of a method to temper the discussion; I proposed that each should set forth his reasons for preferring his own nation in a continued speech, and that I, as an impartial hearer should be the judge amongst them. My proposal was soon accepted; but harmony had like to have been again destroyed by a dispute who was to begin. The Frenchman talked aloud, the German muttered, and the Italian spouted. Amidst the confusion of their voices I could now and then distinguish the words *comedie, boulevards, esprit, empfindungen, genuss, bequemlichkeit, cantatrice, capo d'opera, cosa superba, &c.*; only the Spaniard and the Englishman looked upon the contest with seeming indifference and contempt; at last I succeeded in stopping them, and prevailed on them to speak in the following order.

"I addrest myself first to the Spaniard, who was by no means a Liberal, and said, 'Tell me why you consider your own nation as the wisest, the happiest, and the best?'—he answered, 'I consider the two former epithets as entirely superfluous; for if we are the best, we must be the happiest; and if we are the happiest and best, we must be the wisest.'

"'Now, I believe, there is no man who performs, so well as the Spaniard, his duty to God and to his neighbour. He worships in the most exact, and even the most splendid manner, the Divine Creator, the Redeemer, the Holy Ghost, and the Blessed Virgin, and he does not forget to pray for the intercession of the least of the saints whom the church has admitted; he is loyal to his king, to the utmost stretch of Christian patience and submission; he is kind and charitable to his fellow creatures, helping the needy, and feeding the hungry; he reaps the reward of his good actions in a perpetual cheerfulness. Cheerfulness is the habit of the good; gayety is but the delirium of the wicked. Nor let it be supposed, as many declamatory writers have asserted, that the Inquisition has diminished the happiness of Spain. It is only through the acts of the Inquisition, that the Spanish people have been preserved in a unanimous faith. Now, even granting, for argument's sake, that other religions may be equally good for a future life, there is nothing which tends so much to union and harmony in the present, as worship at the same altar, reliance upon the same means of salvation, obligation to the same duties, and hope of the same final reward. Much has been said of the victims of the Inquisition.

The care which that holy tribunal employed not to hurt the reputation of families, by publishing their proceedings, has served to spread a clamour against them; for that which is secret is always magnified by report. It is thus that fame revenges herself on those who wish to keep her out. But, in reality, are the victims of the Inquisition to be compared with those of the day of St. Barthelemi, and the revocation of the edict of Nantz?—such are the effects of admitting the infection, and then endeavouring to stop it; or are they to be compared with the thousands who suffered in England under Henry VIII., Edward VI. and Elizabeth—such are the consequences of admitting, without control, the preachers of heresy and schism.

"'If we do not want the religious toleration of England, still less do we stand in need of her political liberty. The sun which favours our country with its propitious influence, gives us enjoyment sufficient without seeking to busy ourselves in the affairs of government. Liberty is, in fact, a poor substitute for a fine climate. The people of the south only require the presence of that power which raises the corn, which ripens the grape, in order to be satisfied with their position. To ask if they are happy, you need only ask if they exist. But with the people of the north it is necessary to dig mines, to hew down forests, to build houses, to obtain, in a small space, of a few feet, that warm, comfortable sensation, which a southern peasant feels in the large mansion of nature; he is obliged to look for some artificial source of pleasure, to intoxicate himself with the poison of distilled spirits, or the tumult of political contention. We court no such advantages. To those who love care, we leave the trouble of governing; and we should think it as absurd to insist upon electing deputies, and making laws, because we have the right to do it, as to carry burdens, because we have backs capable of supporting them. Having said what is sufficient to convince all men of sense, I will not dilate upon the beauty of our country; the majesty of Granada, the splendour of Seville, the fertility of Valencia. You know our land, and can do justice to it.'—Having thus spoken, the Spaniard folded his arms in his cloak, which he always wore, even in France; and, I observed, he never listened to a word that was spoken afterwards.

"Having put the same question to the Italian that I had addrest to the Spaniard, he answered to the following purport:—That what had been just said, concerning the pleasure derived from climate, applied, with equal force, to Italy, and set their two countries above all the rest of Europe. 'Indeed,' he said, 'the native of London, or Hamburgh, cannot conceive, unless he travels to our land, the pleasure to be derived from the touch of a cisalpine atmosphere. Our nerves seem to swell and extend themselves to receive the delightful sensation; our eyes dwell without fatigue or pain upon the beauties of a rich and warm landscape: even the voice maintains its clearness only in the air which the sun has blessed. But if we had merely this advantage, we should rival, and not precede Spain in happiness. It is to another circumstance that Italy owes her glory, her occupation, her delight:—to taste. With justice it has been said, that this is the only pursuit of which the pleasures far outbalance the pains. A man may meet with an unfaithful mistress, or be rejected by an ungrateful sovereign, but nothing obliges him to gaze at a bad picture, or dwell upon a disproportioned building. A great work of art may be said to be the most successful result of human effort: a fine statue requires as much genius in the conception as the most difficult problem of Newton; it demands as much skill in the execution as the formation of a time-piece; and, when finished, it attracts the admiration, and gratifies the senses of thousands of spectators for thousands of years. It is, I hope, needless for them to prove that Italy excels all other nations in this respect. The sublimity of Michael Angelo, the grace and expression of Raphael, in fine, the innumerable merits of our great architects, sculptors and painters, are not to be insulted by a comparison with the smoky buildings of London, the monuments in the Musée François, or the lusty goddesses of the Belgian painters. Give me the portico of the Pantheon, and the interior of St. Peter's, the Transfiguration, the Communion of St. Jerome, the St. Michael, the St. Peter and St. Paul, the St. Peter Martyr, the Moses of Michael Angelo, the Venus and Apollo of the ancients; give me, above all, the music which our admirable Paesiello, Cimarosa, and Rossini, have produced—and I will not yield the palm of happiness to any part of Europe. For the prize of wisdom, too, I think, we may lay a fair claim. The greatest natural philosophers, the most skilful negotiators, the most gifted poets, own Italy as their birth-place. The discovery of the laws of motion, of the resistance of the air, of the barometer, of the

telescope, and, lately, of Galvanism ; the knowledge of a fourth quarter of the globe; the history of Italy, of Florence, of the Council of Trent, and of the Civil Wars of France, the Inferno, the Goffredo, and the Orlando Furioso, form a portion of the share which Italy has contributed to the civilization of Europe. It is for you, Sir,' he concluded, turning to the German 'to prove that the universities of Heidelberg and Halle have done more.'

"The German, though he seemed to be smoking his pipe with great apathy, was not insensible to the reproach ; and, like a skilful general, immediately changed the field of action.—'I can find but one fault with your discourse, Signior,' he replied ; 'it is that you have entirely omitted to answer the principal question, namely, why you consider your nation as the best? To this interrogatory I can reply, with a safe conscience, that the Germans are the best people, because they do not assassinate secretly, or murder openly ; because they are honest in their dealings, and pay their debts, whether to government or individuals, with conscience-calming punctuality. From Hamburgh to Clagenfurt, there is scarcely a village which has not its schoolmaster, whilst the capital of a province is almost ignorant of the name of executioner. Our fruit hangs on the trees by the road-side without being touched by any one ; and the streets of our largest towns become still as sleep early in the night. Other nations, indeed, may boast of great discoveries in science, and of a rapid progress in political philosophy; but we furnished them with the means. They have sown a great part, and reaped the whole ; but we gave the field and invented the plough. It is to us that they are indebted for the art of printing, without which, knowledge could not have moved ; and for the Reformation, without which, it would have been arrested in its march. In modern times, too, our literature has taken a far-extended springing leap, which, leaving behind it the long-past glories of Italy and France, place it by the side of England in the race towards the spectator-girt, laurel-surrounded goal, which is always in the horizon of those bright geniuses, who have a heart-convulsing desire of present immortality, and a thousand-man power of intellectual sensation.'

"These last words caused a pause : even the Frenchman took a pinch of snuff, and sneezed twice before he would begin. At last he started with such volubility in praise of France, and of Paris, that I am quite incapable of representing his harangue. He gave the first ten minutes to those who had spoken before him, and tried to prove that France excelled them in the very particulars on which they had insisted. He said there was no climate in Europe equal to that of the south of France, and that even at Paris the winter was over in February. As for the fine arts, he quoted Lalande, who had spent several years in, and written several volumes upon, Italy, and who maintains there is nothing to be seen there, equal to what is to be found in France. In modern times, he thought it beyond a question, that the French painters were the first in the world, which, however, was not to be wondered at, as the English had not at all turned their attention to the fine arts. The works of David, he conceived, express a sublimity, to which Raphael, born in a barbarous age, never could attain ; in music, the French now far excelled the Italians. As for virtue, which his German friend had introduced, somewhat *mal à propos*, into the discussion, he, like the Delphine of Madame de Staël, defined it to consist in a succession of generous impulses. And these impulses acted nowhere with such vigour, as in the country where an officer sacrificed his life, in order to give the alarm to his regiment, and a father went cheerfully to execution, to save the life of his son. Having thrown out these remarks with an air *degagè*, he put on a more Socratic look, as he addressed himself to the Englisman. 'It is with your nation that ours is most fit to be compared. In England, and in France, *les lumieres* are generally spread like the rays of the sun ; in other countries they are scattered like flashes of lightning. But it is more especially in French that elementary books in every art and science are written; it is in French that the reading of the world, profound or trivial, is carried on. If a mathematician wishes to read the deepest book of science, he studies the *Mecanique Celeste :* if a Russian nobleman desires to learn what is meant by the words *feeling* or *wit*, he takes up the tragedies of Racine, or the tales of Voltaire, and learns to smile and to cry like a civilized being. Even the discoveries of your great Newton have been brought to perfection by D'Alembert, and Laplace ; and in pure mathematics you have not for a long time produced an equal to Lagrange. Impartial judges (bowing to me) will agree, that in the most profound and abstract of human sciences, the people whom you treat as frivolous and superficial, have gone far beyond you. Your

mathematicians of Oxford and Cambridge, are not even acquainted with that form of the calculus which we use for our investigations. If we excel you in abstract knowledge, there is still less doubt that we are superior in practical happiness. For happiness consists in nothing so much as in temper of mind fitted for pleasure, or, to use a chemical phrase, in having a capacity for enjoyment. A man may satisfy himself of this, by travelling the same road when he is gay, and when he is gloomy. In the first case the country will appear to him smiling, beautiful, or sublime; in the second, it will seem tame, dull, or savage. Now the disposition of a Frenchman, is to see every thing *en beau*. I remember being in a wretched prison, guarded by Spaniards, who, any day in the week, might have taken a fancy to cut our throats; yet we laughed all day, and acted plays in the evening. Englishmen would have cut holes in the wall, and have been shot in the attempt to escape. If we know how to bear adversity, we also know how to enjoy prosperity. What in the world so good as the restaurateurs and the theatres of Paris? What country can compare with France, for wines, for dress, for dancing, and for plays?

"'You will affirm that these sensual, and marketable enjoyments, destroy the taste for domestic happiness: but it is not so: no people are more attached than the French to their near relations; and England cannot easily produce a mother more attached than Madame de Sevigné. It is the same with all the domestic relations; and it is sufficient to go to the *cimetière* of Pere la Chaise, to be convinced how true the affection which the mothers, and sons, and sisters, of France, have for each other. How simple, and yet how tender the inscriptions upon the tombs! There the sister goes to renew the tender recollection of her sister, and a son to place a garland over the grave of his mother. With you, the dead are never mentioned, never visited, and, I believe, seldom remembered. With the kindest feelings to their relations, the French, it is true, do not think it inconsistent to mix the sociability of a larger circle; and they endeavour to be happy through the short period of existence allotted them; whilst the English lose half their lives in becoming acquainted with those who are jumbled into the same half-century as themselves.'

"The Englishman began with the most diffident air, by refusing any comparison with the Spaniards, the Italians, or the Germans. 'The first,' he said, 'had no political liberty, the second had not even independence, and the Germans could scarcely be said to possess a classical literature: without every one of these advantages no nation could claim the pre-eminence. It was now his duty to show that the English nation was the wisest, the happiest, and the best. The only mode of estimating the rank of England in science and literature, was to enumerate the men she had produced. Whatever claims the Parisians (for Paris was France) might have to distinction in the annals of modern science, they would not dispute that Bacon was the first theoretical teacher, and Newton the greatest practical discoverer of sound philosophy. Nor could England be said to be inferior to any in the science of the day; namely chemistry; when Priestley and Cavendish made discoveries contemporary with those of Lavoisier, and Davy had pushed his researches to a distance which none of his rivals or fellow labourers had reached.

"'If we turn from physical science, and look to history, which, joining the investigation of fact with the exercise of moral judgment, and the use of a cultivated style, seems to form the link between the exact sciences, and polite literature, we shall find that Hume is the most profound, and Gibbon the most learned of modern historians. I will not compare them with De Thou or Rapin, D'Anquetil or Lacretelle; but I will assert, without hesitation, that they have far surpassed Davila, Guicciardin, Mariana, and Schiller.

"'In the region of poetry we fear no comparison with France; in fact, except the tragedies of Racine, two or three of Voltaire, and some passages of Corneille, France has no poetry of the higher class: but even in those, have they any thing so sublime as the conceptions of Milton? have they any characters so true, or an invention so various as that of Shakspeare?

"'If we look at the present state of literature, our superiority is still more apparent; the six poets of our day have no parallels in France.

"'I have now to speak of the happiness of England. Good heavens, what a fertile theme! No cold dissertation on the advantages of liberty, no detailed statement of the blessings derived from industry, can give an inhabitant of the continent an idea of the well-being and prosperity of our island; every man can there think, and speak, and write, as he pleases; no previous censorship of the press prevents the general communication of facts and of

ideas; truth is not squeezed under the hat of a cardinal, or screwed by the voice of an officer of police, but carried into the broad daylight, and appreciated by the general judgment of enlightened men.

"'Nor have we stained the cause of liberty by innumerable murders and proscriptions; our revolution was fruitful in great qualities and great virtues; it produced but few crimes.

"'Perhaps of all the advantages our constitution has procured to us, none is more considerable than the freedom of industry.

"'The consequence is, a perfection in the arts of life, a solidity and completeness of happy comforts, which one of your countrymen,' said he to the Frenchman, 'called *La poesie du bienêtre.* The English shopkeeper has ten times the comfort of the Spanish grandee, and is twenty times as independent as the Roman cardinal.

"'Nor have the English been less remarkable in foreign war; during the late war they gained by sea the battles of Camperdown, St. Vincent, Aboukir, Copenhagen and Trafalgar.'—'Oh, but then,' said the Frenchman, 'your nation are islanders, and cannot cope with us on the land.'—'Talavera and Barrosa, Salamanca, Vittoria and Waterloo, are the answers to this objection.'—

"When all the parties had been heard, I said, with the gravest face, and the most solemn tone I could put on, that I would read over my notes, and give my judgment another day. I did not say, however, that I would give the cause another hearing, as they do in the English chancery court, although it might have been done, in this case, without costing the parties a hundred pounds a-piece."

FROM BLACKWOOD'S EDINBURGH MAGAZINE.

ON THE STUDY OF NATURAL HISTORY.

It might naturally seem a great recommendation of any study, that it is agreeable to those who pursue it; and we should expect, that when a kind of knowledge was in our possession which every child catches at with delight, all parents, and all who have the care of children, would be eager to seize on such an instrument of education, for the equal relief of the child and the teacher. Yet look to experience, and you will find that this consideration has scarcely a place at all among the principles that regulate education. Look at what history tells us of the studies of early enlightened nations; look at the numerous, wealthy, and venerable establishments which, over all Europe, have at this day the charge of rearing the human intellect; nay, look into the bosom of every family, where you would imagine that nature had some chance of making herself heard, and you will wonder what the principle can be that has dictated to men the studies of childhood. In all these institutions, and parents copy them, you will find that the pre-eminent pursuit, the pride of the place, is some sort of cold and barren knowledge, to which there is no natural propensity in a young and growing mind, which is sought after by none of its early desires, which, in its full acquisition, supplies the mind with no powers, and which, to acquire, is a toil and suffering, that shuts the heart for ever after of more than half the learners, to pursuits into which they have purchased admission with the best years of their life.

Why should this be? Is it that we know not where to look for more delightful knowledge? or is it that pain is the only salutary discipline for a growing mind? or that nothing seems precious but what is purchased by sacrifices? I will not attempt to investigate the causes in which this system has originated; but shall undertake the more agreeable occupation of considering at some length one species of knowledge which is a good deal neglected in our own country, and which, it appears to me, is full of profit to the student, from childhood to hoary years—and which would require, I believe, no other compulsion to its pursuit, than the delight it brings with it, in overflowing abundance. The study of which I speak is that of living nature; the most interesting part of what is commonly understood by the name of natural history.

I shall not say much of the facility of engaging children in this study—for this should not be argued of, but seen—and the opportunity of seeing it, of seeing the strong and early feeling with which the natural mind is carried to this knowledge, will not fall in every one's way. For our lives are too much withdrawn from nature; and the lives of our children have their character from ours. To know what is their natural mind, you ought to see them more as children of nature, not imprisoned in houses and towns, fixed by their place, their employments, or the pleasures that are prescribed to them, in seclusion from nature. Where the instruments of all a child's occupation and amusement are of your making —where all the objects on which his eyes can fall are creations of human art—where

all the pursuits he sees going on about him among those he is emulous to imitate, are artificial altogether, how is it possible you should see what native bent there is in his mind to those pleasures and thoughts which lie among the scenes and beings of the natural world? If you would know from your own observation, if you would see with your own eyes, the strong self born impulses there are in the mind of man, carrying it to the love and knowledge of this beautiful world, in the midst of which it is placed, to live and grow by feeling and thought, you must see him, at the season in which his senses are opening upon the world—placed in natural life. You should see him a child, sporting his native liberty among fields and woods, trying his new powers at his will, and choosing his own delights from amidst the profusion of nature; where earth, and air, and water, the grass under his feet, and the trees over his head, are all teeming with objects that allure his curiosity, or oppress him with wonder.

Would you so place a child with a mind of any native spirit of exertion, you would soon find him busy in the elements of natural history—you would find his mind in some way or other strongly engaged among the multitude of living creatures that surrounded him on all sides. That redundant activity of childhood, which may be tired out, but cannot be suppressed, would turn to them for its employment, and you would see him, in the first place, connecting his occupations with them. He could not be long among them before he would begin to find, that he could make himself pursuits out of them; and you would see him making them the objects of his thoughts, his desires, his affections, his exertions: with these, as an eager enemy, hunting, and ensnaring, and waylaying them; and with these, as a friend, feeding and managing those he has got into his possession. And, in either case, you see plainly that his mind is engaged among them, and that he is driven by a strong personal interest, to the study of their ways of life, their manners, their natural history. For it is only by adapting his own proceedings to their nature, that he has any chance of success. But you would see more than this: you would sometimes see him suspended in his pursuits and plays, led away by some of the numberless interesting appearances about them, to observe, and study, and understand, from curiosity and wonder alone. I should have great pleasure in pursuing the history of such a boy, and in tracing through the pleasures, and occupations, and incidents of his early years, the working of those growing feelings, which, in their maturity, are the power that impels genius through the investigation of nature. I should have to trace that history from conjecture; but nothing could be of more force for the improvement of the science of education, than such a history told by those who had opportunity of recording it from real observation.

I have said, that, in the present form of society, there are few who have the means of watching the working of such feelings in children to any extent. All those who by their affluence can shape their life to their own will, may see it, and ought to see it, in their own children. And slight indications of the same will be familiar to every one who attends at all to the ways of children. You may see it, mixing in the interest they take beyond what we can easily sympathize with or conceive, in the animals about the house. I know you will easily discover other causes for this interest in animals, besides their propensity to the study of animal manners. I merely say, this propensity does make a part of the interest, and sometimes you may observe it working alone. If you hear a child make a remark on the mode of growth of a plant, comparing it with others, or on any thing singular or interesting in the manners or conduct of his animals, you may say, "This is the real study. His curiosity and wonder are in action. It is his understanding that is interested here; and the boy looks with those feelings on the works of nature, which, if indulged, will make him one day wise in the ways of nature."

This mode of attaining the rudiments of natural history would, I suppose, have a natural attraction for almost all children. But I think that great numbers also would be drawn to it, in its less interesting, because lifeless form of representations of the creatures, and books relating such parts of their manners, their character, their history, as are within the compass of a child's wonder. These surely ought to be tried, where the means of those better rudiments are wanting. This chance, at least, should be given to the child of proving his capacity to be affected with what is interesting in the living works of nature.

The history of which I spoke, tracing the progressive feelings of a mind engaged in the observation of living nature, from the first childish affections to the matured philosophic love of truth, and reverential study of creating wisdom, would be a most effec-

tual argument for the utility of the pursuit: since it would show, in full and clear light, its whole influence on the mind of the student. In the absence of such a history, I will mention, in succession, a few of the principal advantages, as it appears to me, to be derived from the study of natural history.

In the first place, To consider the utility of the study in the most practical sense, for the advantage which every one may find in the regulation of life, from adding to the occupations imposed on him by necessity, one avocation of pleasure, one pursuit taken up and followed for its own delight merely. If this pursuit is to be furnished by the mind, if it is to be a study, what is the good to be expected from such a study? It is, that it is an innocent employment of time: It is, that it keeps the mind in health by continued activity: It is, that it refreshes the mind from its cares, and its labours of duty and necessity. This study then is useful, which will furnish endless employment of time, for it is infinite in its variety, and for ever unfolding such new scenes to the student, that there is no fear lest it lose the power of engaging, and leave the mind again to the burden and danger of unoccupied time. It must be effectual for keeping the mind in health by continued activity, from the same infinite variety, which is for ever tempting the mind to new investigations, and requiring of it more extensive and complicated speculation. And must it not be of power, for refreshing and renovating the spirits from their harassing cares, since it leads at once away to the most elevating and tranquillizing of all contemplations, the majestic order and calm happiness of the world of nature?

Let me illustrate a little, what I have said of the advantage of this study, for drawing on the mind through infinite variety of speculation. It is not enough to show that the matter is infinite, but it should appear, that to him who is once engaged in it at all, there will be fresh interest continually arising, and impelling him to extended inquiry. It should appear that there is an intimate connexion among these infinite parts, so that he will pass naturally from one to another; so that, I should rather say, if he is bent to understand one, he will be required to study many others. Suppose you begin with a single bird. At once how much you are required to know! Take it in its connexion with other living creatures. With these it is on both sides at war. It has enemies whom it dreads. It has those to whom it is itself an enemy, on whom it preys. How much of its habits of life will depend on these; whom therefore you must know. Especially on its prey: for this varies with the varying seasons. Why does it vary? Here is a fresh region for inquiry. Why does one brood of insects come forth for its prey, at one season—another at another? You are drawn unconsciously to look to the habits of these insects, and the multitude of circumstances on which they are dependent. Some of these feed perhaps on particular species of plants, and their birth, therefore, is timed to the season of those plants. Again, these plants love a particular soil; tribes of insects are confined to a particular soil. Those that feed on them, will be attracted to the soil in which they abound. Here is a new connexion, and another part of nature offered to your curiosity. But your bird migrates. He comes from a colder, or he seeks a milder sky. He leads your imagination with him, to study him in his new situation: to see him adapting himself to new enemies, new prey, new seasons, a new world.

But to regard it under the higher consideration of its influence on the character of the mind—another great recommendation of this study, is the nature of the facts and speculations among which it engages the mind. It is a study of life, enjoyment, and, in a certain degree, of mind. It is a study of life. "I am fearfully and wonderfully made:" so is every creature that lives. Though in none does it so impress us as in man, because none is so well known to us, none is formed to such high purposes. But this feeling, more or less strong, must attend the whole study of life. To contemplate the great powers of self continuance, and self production, with which it is every where accompanied; to observe all the functions which minister to these great purposes—to know the endless varieties of structure, by which the same functions are effected in different species—this is to study life. A study which cannot but be of deep interest to man, who sees in all other creatures, in a less perfect form, what is perfected in himself—who searches in all the rest of nature the secrets—as far as they may be revealed to him—of his own existence.

It is, besides, the study of enjoyment. It is a great part of the business of the naturalist, to understand the happiness of the universe. In every creature in whom he is concerned, this is a main object of his inquiry. What are its pleasures? What the

provisions for its happiness? For on their pleasures depends much of their habits and character. But I should rather have said it is the study of sensation: for what he has to make himself acquainted with, are desires and affections in which are blended intimately pleasure and suffering. I will not attempt to speak of the many appearances in the manners and conduct of animals, which can only be understood by understanding, and, I will say, by sympathizing with their feelings; but I will just mention what must be uppermost in every one's thoughts when this subject is spoken of, I mean the maternal love which is so conspicuous in so many species. Take this alone. Imagine all the feelings and thoughts that must pass through the mind of a man, who applies himself earnestly to understand this one feature in the lives of unreasoning creatures. How often—(for it is little that can be done by gathering the facts that others have recorded)—how often must he have gone and looked at these mothers employed in their care of their litter or their brood! How long must he have stood watching the endlessly varying manifestations of her love! Now solicitous and diligent for their sustenance, now changing her nature to ferocity for their defence, now merely uttering itself in caresses, and now rising into endeavours for their instruction. And these affections which he is to study, what are they but the same affections which make up in part the soul of man? This then is momentous in his inquiry—to compare the same affections in different creatures, resting in these on instinct, and in one on reason.

I have ventured to say, that it is in some sort a study of mind? by which I mean, of intellect distinguished from feeling. If you wish to search and understand the wonders of the human intellect, you should be careful, I think, not to begin with those wonders. The faculties and attributes of that mind are too high for the rudiments of speculation; they are oppressive by their greatness; they are bewildering by their infinite variety. But go where you can find a part of these faculties, and a moderated operation of their powers. Go to the inferior creation. Study *their* mind; and you may find intellect in a form which is within your grasp. The mind of man studying the mind of man, is like a giant wrestling with a giant. When it takes under its speculation the intellect of inferior creatures, it is the same giant dallying with a child.

Am I to add, that far the highest consideration which I should urge, which almost commands us to the investigation of nature, is, that from every part of nature their speaks one voice, the voice of religion! that the whole universe is but a manifestation of the attributes of its Creator! that to look on the works of that power, fills the heart with love; to know them, constrains heart, mind, and soul, to adoration!

Poetry.

BY THOMAS MOORE.

THOU ART, OH GOD.

"The day is thine; the night also is thine; thou hast prepared the light and the sun. Thou hast set all the borders of the earth; thou hast made summer and winter." *Psalm*, lxxiv. 16, 17.

Thou art, Oh God! the life and light
Of all the wondrous world we see;
Its glow by day, its smile by night,
Are but reflections caught from thee.
Where'er we turn, thy glories shine,
And all things fair and bright are thine.

When day, with farewell beam, delays
Among the opening clouds of even,
And we can almost think we gaze
Through golden vistas into heaven;
Those hues that make the sun's decline
So soft, so radiant, LORD! are thine.

When night, with wings of starry gloom,
O'ershadows all the earth and skies,
Like some dark, beauteous bird, whose plume
Is sparkling with unnumbered eyes;
That sacred gloom, those fires divine,
So grand, so countless, LORD! are thine.

When youthful spring around us breathes,
Thy spirit warms her fragrant sigh;
And every flower, the summer wreathes,
Is born beneath that kindling eye.
Where'er we turn, thy glories shine,
And all things fair and bright are thine.

From a New York Paper.

The following combination of wit and compliment, copied from a London paper, was occasioned by the recent death of Mr. Rae, a celebrated theatrical performer:

LINES TO DRURY.

Mourn, Drury! mourn thy half deserted scene,
Thy triumph once, thy sorrow now is KEAN:
And, in fresh gloom to wrap thy setting day,
Lost is thy other son, extinct thy RAE:
Hope's anchor raised, her swelling sails unfurl'd,
This seeks "another,"—that, "a better world!"

Foreign Literature and Science.

Compiled for the National Recorder.

The prolific author of Waverly, whose genius seems to be as inexhaustible as it is extraordinary, has announced another

romance, the title of which is "Kennilworth." From this name we presume that it will resemble Ivanhoe more than any of the other productions of the same pen; and from the circumstance having transpired, we expect that we may look for its completion soon after Christmas.

The title of Lord Byron's forthcoming tragedy is, we hear, "The Doge of Venice." We have before mentioned that it is to be published, not acted. We hear of no other very remarkable works on the anvil.

The Rev. Robert Maturin, author of Bertram, &c. has in the press a poem, entitled "The Universe."

Knickerbocker's New York is just published in England.

Translation of Enoch.—Dr. Gesenius, who, with lord Guilford, has been recently transcribing some Arabian MSS. at the Bodleian Library, has nearly completed the singular task of translating the book of Enoch from the Abyssinian language. This language resembles the Arabic, one-fourth of the words perhaps being radically of that tongue, in which the learned doctor is well skilled, while he is also one of the most celebrated Hebrew scholars on the continent.

Georgian version of the Scriptures.—By the correspondence of the Rev. Dr. Pinkerton, attached to the Sixteenth Report of the British and Foreign Bible Society, it appears that the manuscript translation of the scriptures into the Georgian language, made by St. Euphemius, in the eighth century, is still preserved in the Iberian or Georgian monastery at Mount Athos, with many other scriptural and theological works in the same language. It is proposed to send some persons acquainted with the language to transcribe these important works.

Auscultation.—This singular method of discovering the various disorders of the chest, by percussion, was, we believe, first suggested by Avenbrugger, a physician of Vienna, who published a work on the subject, since translated by M. Corvissart. A memoir has lately been presented to the French Academy, by M. Lacunec, detailing the various modes of employing this discovery. Among others, Mr. L. recommends the use of a tube, with thick sides, or a cylinder, pierced along its axis with a narrow aperture. This, on being applied to the chest of a person in good health, who is speaking, or singing, produces a sort of trembling noise, more or less distinct; but if an ulcer exists in the lungs, a very singular phenomenon happens. The voice of the sick person can no longer be heard by the ear at liberty; the whole of the sound passing along the aperture of the cylinder to the observer. Commissioners, appointed by the French Academy, have verified the experiment in various cases of consumption.

Languages.—M. Frederick Adeling, counsellor of state to the Emperor of Russia, has lately published, in 153 pages, "A View of all the known Languages and their Dialects." In this view we find in all 937 Asiatic, 587 European, 276 African, and 1264 American languages and dialects, enumerated and classed; a total of 3064.

Chinese Dictionary.—Letters from Canton report the successful prosecution of Mr. Morrison's labours, in the printing of his Chinese dictionary. The second part was begun in April, 1811; this volume consists of a thousand printed pages, in 4to. and contains above 12,000 Chinese characters, the newest in use, with numerous examples. In February, 1819, 600 pages, comprising near 8000 characters, were completed. The printing of all the volumes of this important work, will occupy a space of hardly less than ten years.

DOMESTIC.

Messrs. Wells & Lilly, of Boston, have republished "The Memoirs of Mr. Edgeworth," one vol. 8vo. Price $2.25.

They have published, "The Natural History of the Bible; or, a Description of all the Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, Reptiles, and Insects, Trees, Plants, Flowers, Gums, and Precious Stones, mentioned in the Sacred Scriptures. Collected from the best authorities, and alphabetically arranged. By Thaddeus Mason Harris, D. D." Price $3, handsomely bound. It is for sale in Philadelphia, by Littell & Henry.

Died, on Monday the 18th inst., Jean D. Gallaher, daughter of Dr. James Gallaher.

TERMS OF PUBLICATION.

Subscriptions to the National Recorder may commence at any time, though it is desirable that they should begin with a volume: they may be withdrawn at the close of any volume, provided notice be sent before any part of the next volume shall have been forwarded. Payment to be made in July of each year for the whole year. Such as begin with the second volume of any year, to pay for that volume on the first of January following.

Patent Machine Paper of J. & T. Gilpin, Brandywine.

Clark & Raser, Printers.

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Record.

Inaugural Address of Governor Hiester.

Fellow Citizens,

The distinguished mark of confidence with which I have been honoured, in being called by the public voice to perform the functions of the executive department of this state, demands my warmest acknowledgments. The opportunity now presented is embraced to express to you, and through you to the freemen of this commonwealth, the lively sense of gratitude with which the public suffrage, in my favour, has filled me. My conduct in that station in which the people have been pleased to place me, contrary to my own inclination and judgment, shall, I hope, prove the sincerity of the gratitude expressed.

The solemn pledge, which I have just given, to perform the duties of my office with fidelity, impresses me with a deep sense of their importance, and I have reason to implore the assistance of Divine Providence in the arduous task I have undertaken.

The many difficulties which a chief magistrate of this state has to encounter, increased, probably at this time, beyond what they have been heretofore, and the great responsibility attached to his office, render me seriously apprehensive that my best efforts will be inadequate to give satisfaction, even to the disinterested and patriotic part of the community. But, I trust, if any errors shall be committed, they will not be chargeable to intention; they will owe their origin to the imperfection of our nature and the narrow limits of human foresight; they will not proceed from a wilful neglect of duty on my part, nor from any want of devotion to the best interest of our beloved country. Such errors, I may justly hope, will meet with indulgence from an enlightened and liberal people. Where censure shall, upon a full and impartial view of matters, be merited, let it not be withheld. It is the duty of freemen to examine closely into the conduct of those to whom they have delegated their power, or the guardianship of their rights and interests; to censure the abuse of the one, or the neglect and mismanagement of the other.

In approaching the station to which I have been called, with a due sense of its difficulty and responsibility, I pledge myself to pursue with sincerity and diligence, that course which my best judgment shall direct, to promote public happiness; and believing that to cherish and strengthen an attachment to free government, to soften the rancour and allay the prejudices of party spirit, to unite the mass of the people as one republican family, will be among the means of increasing the comforts of social life, I shall direct all my efforts to accomplish these purposes. Considering myself as elected by the people of this commonwealth, and not by any particular denomination of persons, I shall endeavour to deserve the name of chief magistrate of Pennsylvania, and to avoid the disgraceful appellation of governor of a party. In appointments to office, it will be my endeavour to select, without distinction of party, such as I believe to be the most honest and capable; and if I shall be successful in this respect, I trust that, with the assistance of your wisdom and patriotic endeavours in matters of legislation, the prosperity of the commonwealth may be promoted, its relations with the general government honourably upheld, and all its lawful rights maintained.

In deliberating upon the concerns of the commonwealth,

Gentlemen of the Senate and
House of Representatives,

You will find one of the most prominent topics to be the stagnation of trade and business of every description, the almost total annihilation of confidence, between man and man, and the distress of many individuals of the community. If any thing could be done to encourage and revive the activity of our citizens; if any means could be devised to restore confidence and to prevent the sacrifice of property, with due attention to the rights of all parties, I should most heartily concur in any measures calculated to attain these desirable ends. Permit me to suggest to you whether it would not be possible to devise some method of reducing the enormous power and patronage of the governor, without impairing the other general features of our present excellent constitution; whether the annual sessions of our legislature might not be shortened without detriment to the public good; whether a reduction of salaries, of fees of office, and compensation for public services, ought not, at this time, to take place, to correspond in some degree with the reduced prices of agricultural produce. It also deserves serious consideration whether public improvements might not at this time, be advantageously made, and domestic manufactures encouraged with success. Above all, it appears an imperative duty, to introduce and support a liberal system of education, connected with some general religious instruction. These are matters which will certainly engage your attention, and will probably be objects of your deliberations, and if any adequate measures shall be proposed, it would give me great pleasure in being instrumental in their promotion.

Let us, fellow citizens, every one in his station, for we are all members of one family, by whatever name we may be designated, unite in earnestly labouring to promote the common good; and that Providence, which has heretofore granted us abundant blessings, will, I humbly trust, continue them; and so crown our labours, that our posterity, in the enjoyment of every desirable, civil and religious privilege, may bless our memory, when we are mouldering in the dust with those whose toil and blood achieved our liberties. JOSEPH HIESTER.

Harrisburgh, Dec. 19, 1820.

DIED.

On the 26th instant, Mrs. Sarah Ralston, wife of Robert Ralston, Esq.

On the 18th instant, Anthony Butler, Esq. of Elizabeth city, North Carolina, formerly of this city.

On the 10th instant, Joseph Lownes, of this city.

Agriculture.

"Let us cultivate the ground, that the poor, as well as the rich, may be filled; and happiness and peace be established throughout our borders."

From Memoirs of the Philadelphia Agric. Soc.

PUBLISHED BY REQUEST.

On Wine made from Cider and Honey, by James Parker, Esq. in a Letter to the Secretary.

Head of Chester, Kent county, Md. July 20th, 1815.

I have received a letter from the hon. Judge Tilghman, enclosing an extract from the minutes of the Agricultural Society of Philadelphia, requesting to be furnished with the process for making wine, such as the sample I took the liberty to present to the society. In compliance with the request, I will observe, that I was first induced to make the experiment by reading the receipt of Mr. Cooper, of New Jersey, in your edition of Willich's Domestic Encyclopedia; and I commenced the process as directed, using instead of the washings of honeycomb, pure boiled honey, and French brandy, instead of apple brandy as used by Mr. Cooper. I used in my first essays in 1808, apple brandy, peach brandy, and French brandy; the result was, that the apple and peach brandy produced very pleasant liquors, but the French brandy exceeded my expectations. I have continued to make experiments when I could procure suitable fruit, and have completely demonstrated, that my composition will invariably produce a cheap fine wine.

The cider, of which the sample sent you was made, was pressed the latter end of November, 1812; and passed through a cloth to take out the pummice, and put into casks, with above two gallons of honey to the barrel: it remained in that state until March, at which time the fermentation had ceased; it was then racked off into clean casks, with two gallons of French brandy, and one gallon of bounce, made of French brandy and morella cherry, added to a barrel. About midsummer it was fined in the usual way, with whites of eggs and new milk; I began to use it about the first of November: this has been my invariable practice. I have ascertained that every kind of fruit will not answer; I have failed twice, with an apple peculiar to this part of the country, called scrivener's red, which makes a very pleasant but not strong cider.

The apple which I would prefer, and which has never failed, is the cart-house, and the pennock; I have tried the cart-house separately, and have ground them together, and have always succeeded; I have also used loaf sugar instead of honey, and find it answer equally as well, but it is not so cheap. The morella cherry juice is not essentially necessary, but it is a considerable improvement.

It is unnecessary to observe that the strength, or sweetness, may be made to suit any taste, by increasing or diminishing the quantity of brandy or honey; and perhaps the only fault which has been found by gentlemen, judges of wine, is, that my wine is too sweet; however, this objection may be easily remedied. I have used less than two gallons of honey to a barrel in my last essay, and I think it will be the best I have made.

I will send you a demijohn of it in a few days, by the Smyrna packet, which you will please accept. The sample I submitted for the inspection of the society, was two years old, that in the demijohn I intend for you, is one year old, and I think will be preferable to the first at its age. I will send you also a bottle of the first sample, that you may compare the quality.

In December, 1813, I pressed off three barrels of cider made of the cart-house and pennock, from my own orchard, and I pro-

cured a barrel of the scriveners, very carefully prepared by a neighbour, and added the honey: when I examined them in February, I found the last barrel was pricked, and I very imprudently mixed it with a barrel of the cart-house, expecting to restore it; in consequence, both casks are indifferent, but I think they improve: one other of my casks had been a rum cask, and although it had been well scalded it gave the wine a rum flavour, which it still retains; that in the demijohn is of the other cask, made of the cart-house and pennock at the same time. Had it not been for those circumstances, I could have furnished you with a quarter cask, as you desired; the older parcel I wish to retain for my own use, to furnish samples and to ascertain its improvement. Last year my orchard failed, and I did not make any; at present I have a fine prospect for fine fruit. I am, sir, with respect, &c.

JAMES PARKER.

Dr. MEASE.

Miscellany.

Extract from an article "On Reading and Readers," in the New Monthly Magazine.

It is impossible to judge accurately of the effects which things have upon other people, while we are sure of the feelings they excite in ourselves. We shall, therefore, say a few words of our own notion of *reading*, and what is most captivating and agreeable to us, presuming with Moliere, that what will fairly entertain one will not be very far from pleasing another. In the first place, *duty* reading (like duty dances, where we are linked to the person we least like in the room, and that too by our own imperious sense of decorum) is, to say the least of it, very dismal. We sit down with a watch before us, most obstinately determined never to flinch till we have read "a full hour by Shrewsbury clock." We begin, and just as our eyes get to the bottom of the page, we recollect that we have not retained a single idea of what we have perused; and that instead of swallowing the aforesaid very learned and instructive matter, there have been half a dozen strange fancies flying across our mind—sometimes of a pair of bright eyes resting their glances on our own—sometimes of some dear and absent friend's countenance, kind and delightful as ever—sometimes loftier things pass before us, and we think how Lucifer fell—then all at once, conscious of such folly, we knit our brows, grow angry, and nail down our reluctant attention, like a mutinous seaman, to the deck. There is, it must be confessed, a very considerable satisfaction, after we have finished the task, in the consciousness that we have conquered our own refractory minds: but even this scarcely compensates for the Sisyphian labour of duty reading. There is a smack of the schoolmaster and his tasks in it, which alone is enough to render it disagreeable. The advantages which the town and the country afford to a thoroughbred reader, are perhaps, on the whole, pretty equal, though we confess that the former seems to boast many facilities which the latter does not possess. It is true, that in the country, one is much less disturbed, and is not tempted to spend one's days in the frivolities and amusements which in town consume so much time; and then the country, at certain seasons, is so luxurious for lazy reading. Oh! for the true sentimental reader, nothing but the country will serve; for he will tell you that it is impossible to enjoy a book in the dungeon and gloom of a town—his exquisite time is a warm summer's evening, with just an hour's light before him; and then, when the gloom of the woods is growing deeper, and the air more still, he steals out, with book in his hand, and reaches the nook of some wood that looks out to the west; and seated on the dry and slippery grass, he does certainly banquet on a most delicious repast. Next to this, his favourite time is "under the opening eyelids of the morn;" but then the dew is on the ground, and he is obliged to sit on a rail, or the trunk of some fallen tree. It is also very pleasant, in the very noon heat of a July day, to get into a deep shade with one's book, out of the reach of the sun, and the flies, and the tongues of one's acquaintances. A hayloft too, if it is not too dark, furnishes at this time a comfortable retreat and a convenient couch. In short, it would be next to impossible to enumerate all the delightful reading seats which the country affords. It should, however, be remembered, that the books we carry out with us are such as suit the place. It would be preposterous to load ourselves with Bonnycastle and Leslie, and Steward's Spherics, or with any such grave and imposing articles. No; our food must be light summer reading for such occasions; and in our opinion, novels and romances of the best kind are the fittest. After all is said, we know of no pleasure like that of getting a new and well written

novel into our possession, and after commencing the attack by assaulting its yet untouched leaves with our long, smooth paperknife, sitting down where one knows one shall not be disturbed, and becoming acquainted with a dozen or two of people of different characters, dispositions and faces, without the slightest danger of their ever doing any thing but entertain one. On a very hot day, the mind has just energy enough to follow a train of interesting circumstances, and a crowd of interesting persons, with a tolerable degree of liveliness and satisfaction. At other periods too, novels and romances are very valuable aliment, as when the mind has been overstrained all the day by strict attention to grave and weighty subjects, or when our thoughts are too anxiously employed about something which wears the spirit to distress and suffering; or, lastly, when we are from some cause or other so absolutely *ennuyé*, that any thing is preferable to our own torturing idleness: a good novel too, if one breakfasts or takes tea by one's self, is no despicable companion; and indeed this is a practice which meets with our most cordial approbation. It should not, however, be done in the company of others, for then it is unsocial, to say the least of it. We would not have people to suppose that we are as fond of novels as Curran was when he was young, who used to carry a volume of this kind to his chamber with him, and read it the last thing at night and the first in the morning: nor yet are we the indiscriminate advocates of all the larger piles of trash which load the shelves of some of our circulating libraries. Of all books on earth, a very bad novel is the very worst; and rather than be compelled by force to travel through it, we know not whether we would not make another bold attempt to force our passage over the *Pons asinorum*.

But the chief reason why we prefer the town to the country is, because we can get new books as soon as they make their appearance; while in the country we may languish day after day, for a work which every body has read but one's self; and it must be confessed by every one, that it is a supreme pleasure to carry off in triumph, the first day of its publication, and as soon as the bookseller can get it put in boards, sir W. Scott's last new novel! And moreover there are many kinds of books which read infinitely better in the town than in the country, from the very contrast of their contents to every thing that meets our eye. The impression strikes more forcibly and deeply on the mind when it has not been prepared by circumstances for its reception, and there is more room for the imagination to revel (which often images things more beautiful than any reality), than when we have a scene before us which makes pretensions to the beauties of which we are reading. The memory of all that we love is often more beautiful than the presence, for we too often remember only what we are not willing to forget, while all the rest is steeped in oblivion.

Another argument in favour of the town, and more especially of London, is the vast number of bookstalls, or, as the Americans would call them, bookstores, with which it abounds. In Holborn alone, and the courts which run out of it, there are more books on sale, we venture to say, than in any one provincial town in the kingdom. To balance the delights of a shady wood in a July day, we would mention the pleasure of getting on the shady side of the street, and resting awhile at our bookseller's, after refreshing one's self with the sparkling beverage of a soda water fountain, which certainly exceeds the most limpid stream that ever flowed.

Of in-door reading, the most delightful is at night, when all the rest of the household are gone to bed. The still quietude of the house, and the complete absence of all interruption, render this period most valuable to the student. At this time, all we read seems to reach the understanding by the surest road, and we travel along it too at a much quicker pace than we can do amid the glare and the hurry of daylight. In winter the student should take care to provide a lively and blazing fire, with a supply of fuel equal to the intenseness of his industry. In summer, that is in the hot days of summer (if they should ever return), he will open his casement to admit some of the refreshing night air, and exchanging his coat and boots for a loose, light dressing gown and a pair of thin slippers, he will absolutely feel as if he were in elysium. At both seasons, however, if he would experience the full enjoyment of his situation, he will provide himself with a coffee-biggin, and some fresh ground coffee—not your cheap Dutch or plantation coffee, the flavour of which is little superior to the smack of roasted horse beans, but some real Turkey coffee, such as would make the whiskers of a Disdar Aga curl with delight. This luxurious refreshment is necessary to make the dizziness of the

brain evaporate, and to clear the head from all the vapours which the toils and business of the day have left there.

This advice is, we fear, not very favourable to early rising; but really in the town it is not worth while to rouse one's self until the milkmen and old clothesmen have finished their cries. With those who have the fresh morning air of the country to greet their rising, the matter is very different; but of their pleasures we must reserve ourselves to say something on a future occasion.

Extract of a letter from M. Say to Mr. Malthus, published in the New Monthly Magazine. M. Say answers some objections made to his theory—that production always opens a market for production, and that the channels of trade are never choked up in one part, unless they are empty in another.

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We now come to the objection in which there is, perhaps, the greatest force, because it is supported by an imposing example. In the United States, the charges of production are few, the taxes are light, and yet they are overstocked there, as in all other places, with merchandise for which there is no demand. These difficulties, you say, cannot be attributed to the cultivation of bad lands, to the obstacles opposed to industry, to enormous taxes. There must, then, be something independent of the power of production necessary to the increase of wealth.

Well, sir, you will scarcely believe, that according to me, it is the *power of production*, at least for the present, of which the Americans are in want, in order to dispose of their overflowing produce to advantage.

The favourable situation of this people, during a long war in which they have almost always enjoyed the advantage of neutrality, has been the means of turning their attention, their industry, and capitals, far too exclusively to external and maritime commerce. The Americans are enterprising; their voyages are cheaply performed; they have introduced into navigation long courses, and various expeditious manœuvres, which shorten voyages, reduce their expenses, and correspond with those improvements in the arts which diminish the costs of production; in short, the Americans have drawn to themselves all the maritime commerce which the English have not been able to engross; they have, for many years, been the intermediate agents between all the continental powers of Europe, and the rest of the world. Their success has even exceeded that of the English, wherever those nations have been competitors, as in China. What has been the result? An excessive abundance of those commodities which are obtained by commercial and maritime industry; and when the general peace at length opened the highway of the ocean to all nations, the French and Dutch ships crowded with a kind of madness into the midst of a career thus newly opened to them; and in their ignorance of the actual state of countries beyond sea—their agriculture, arts, population and resources for buying and consuming—these ships, escaped from a tedious detention, carried in abundance the produce of the continent of Europe to all parts, presuming that the other nations of the globe would be eager to possess those commodities after their long separation from Europe.

But in order to purchase this extraordinary supply, it would have been requisite for these countries to create immediately extraordinary quantities of produce of their own; for the difficulty at New York, at Baltimore, the Havana, Rio Janeiro, or Buenos Ayres, is not to consume, but to purchase European manufactures. But the Europeans required payment in cottons, tobaccos, sugars, and rice; and this demand even enhanced the prices: and as, notwithstanding the dearness of these merchandises, and of money, which is also merchandise, it was necessary to take them, or return without payment. These very articles, thus rendered scarce in their original country, became more abundant in Europe, and at length so completely overstocked the European markets, that a fair price could not be obtained for them, although the consumption of Europe has greatly increased since the peace; hence the disadvantageous returns which we have witnessed. But suppose for an instant that the agricultural and manufactured produce of both North and South America had suddenly become very considerable at the time of the peace, in that case the people of these countries being more numerous, and producing more, would easily have purchased all the European cargoes, and furnished a variety of returns at a cheap rate.

This effect will, I doubt not, take place with respect to the United States, when they are enabled to add to the objects of exchange furnished by their maritime commerce, a greater quantity of their agricultural produce, and perhaps some articles of

manufactures also. Their cultivation is extending, their manufactures multiply, and their population, in the natural order of things, increases with astonishing rapidity. In a few years the combination of their varied industry will form a mass of products, amongst which will be found more articles calculated to furnish profitable returns, or at least profits of which the Americans will employ a part in the purchase of European merchandise.

Merchandise produced by Europeans at a less expense than it can be made for in America, will be carried to the United States; and goods which the soil and industry of America produce cheaper than they can be had elsewhere, will be carried home in exchange. The nature of demands will determine the nature of productions: each nation will prefer engaging in that kind of production in which it succeeds best, and the result will be exchanges mutually and permanently advantageous. But these commercial ameliorations can only be brought about by time. The talents and experience requisite for the practice of the arts are not acquired in a few months; years are necessary for their attainment. The Americans will not discover in what manufactures they can succeed until after several attempts.* When they are successful, those particular manufactures will no longer be carried to them; but the profits derived from this production will procure them the means of buying other European produce.

With respect to agricultural speculations, however rapid may be their extension, they can only afford markets for European produce by means of their own productions, by very slow degrees. As fast as culture and civilization extend beyond the Allegheny mountains into Kentucky and the territories of Indiana and the Illinois, the first gains are employed in the subsistence of the colonists as they arrive from the states more anciently peopled, and in building their habitations. The profits they make beyond these, serve to extend their clearing and plantations; the next are employed in manufacturing their own produce for local consumption; and savings of a fourth order only can be applied to the manufacture and fabrication of the products of the soil for distant consumption. It is not until this latter state of things takes place that new states begin to afford markets for Europeans; this cannot be in their earliest infancy: their population must have had time to increase, and their agricultural produce must have become sufficiently abundant to oblige them to exchange it at a distance for other value. Afterwards, and by the natural progress of things, instead of exporting raw produce, they export produce which has received some preparation, and which consequently comprising a greater value in a less bulk, is adapted to bear the expense of carriage. Such produce will one day come from Europe, from New Orleans, a city destined to become one of the greatest *entrepôts* in the world.

This point has not yet been attained: is it then wonderful that the productions of the United States have not yet afforded markets sufficient for the commercial efforts which followed the peace? Is it extraordinary that the commercial produce brought by the Americans themselves into their ports, at the commencement of our excursive development of their nautical industry, should yet remain there in abundance?

You see, sir, that there is nothing in this fact but what is quite conformable to the doctrine of your antagonists.

* The manufactures which a new nation may execute to the greatest advantage, are, in general, those which consist in preparing raw materials of their own growth, or imported at a small expense. It is not probable that the United States will ever supply Europe with cloth; but they will perhaps furnish her with manufactured tobaccos, refined sugars; perhaps they may even establish cotton manufactories on better terms than the English.

FROM EDGEWORTH'S MEMOIRS.

Doctor Randolph was at that time president of Corpus Christi College. With great learning, and many excellent qualities, he had some singularities, which produced nothing more injurious from his friends than a smile. He had the habit of muttering upon the most trivial occasions, "*Mors omnibus communis.*" One day his horse stumbled upon Maudlin bridge, and the resigned president let his bridle go, and drawing up the waistband of his breeches as he sat bolt upright, he exclaimed before a crowded audience, "*Mors omnibus communis!*" The same simplicity of character appeared in various instances, and it was mixed with a mildness of temper, that made him generally beloved by the young students. The worthy doctor was indulgent to us all, but to me in particular upon one occasion, where I fear that I tried his temper more than I ought to have done. The gentlemen commoners were not

obliged to attend early chapel on any days but Sunday and Thursday; I had been too frequently absent, and the president was determined to rebuke me before my companions. "Sir," said he to me as we came out of chapel one Sunday, "you *never* attend Thursday prayers." "I do *sometimes*, sir," I replied. "I did not see you here last Thursday. And, sir," cried the president, rising into anger, "I will have nobody in my college," (ejaculating a certain customary guttural noise, something between a cough and the sound of a postman's horn,) "Sir, I will have nobody in my college that does not attend chapel. I did not see you at chapel last Thursday." "Mr. President," said I, with the most profound reverence, "it was impossible that you should see me, for you were not there yourself."

Antidotes for Poisons.—By late experiments M. Drapier has ascertained that the fruit of the *fenillea cordifolia* is a powerful antidote against vegetable poison.—Dr. Chisholm states that the juice of the sugar cane is the best antidote known for arsenic.

Remedy for Ophthalmia.—A species of bignonia grows in La Guyane, in the neighbourhood of Demerara, in a sandy soil, which contains, under the brown epidermis, a fibrous, pulpy part, from which the Indians collect a juice, by pressing it on cotton. A drop or two of this juice is conveyed into the eye, by means of a paper funnel, once a day, for three or four days, in which time it effects a cure. Dr. Chisholm declares, that he has tried this plant in three cases of ophthalmia with success. Having only the dry root, he scraped off the outside, and made a strong infusion of the internal part, six drops of which, applied to each eye, once a day, completed the cure in six days.

Failure of the Olive in France.—Letters from Provence mention the total failure of olive plantations in that part of France. It has, indeed, been remarked, that for upwards of half a century, the olives have shown a tendency to emigrate. The soil of Provence now appears to be entirely ruined, and no hope is entertained there of the future cultivation of olives. For the last fifty years, none of the young shoots have risen to above five or six feet high. It is the same in the adjacent countries, which have all suffered more or less from the cold of late years. Two-fifths of these plants have been cut down to the very roots, and three years will scarcely suffice to enable them to obtain maturity. The olives of Marseilles and Var were, some time ago, in excellent condition: but all have perished.

New species of Potato.—M. Launerman, a skilful gardener, has introduced in Ghent, from some foreign country, a potato, of a species not known on the continent. Having planted it, the crop produced 2160 lbs. of potatoes, every stalk yielding 15 or 18 pounds. The form is oblong, colour red, and quality excellent.

Erroneous Translations.—When we see "Cicero's *Familiar* Letters," who would suppose that they meant Cicero's letters to his friends? or who, in reading Marmontel's "Moral Tales," would not suppose that the French author had signalized himself, like Seneca or Johnson, by his moral discourses, instead of tales descriptive of manners, which is the real meaning of *Contes Moraux*.

Henpecking.—I have often observed, that old bachelors are the most clamorous of men against this exertion of power in the female over the lord of the creation. Whether this happens because they would wish to have a fair excuse for their choice of celibacy, against the general practice of mankind in seeking their happiness in marriage; or whether this keenness of sight and uncommon sensibility in old bachelors arises from the axiom, that lookers on see more of the game than players—let more hardy casuists than I am determine.

Rudeness of manners is not a single vice, says a French writer, but the product of several: vanity, ignorance of the world, contempt of others, or envy and jealousy of them. Sometimes indolence and want of feeling may produce solitary instances of it. When it becomes a habit, beating or hanging is the only remedy.

Hobbyhorsical Prejudices.—Cicero, conscious, no doubt, of his great and very eminent reputation in the art of oratory, says roundly, that no one but a good man can be a complete orator. Earl marshal lord Arundel, the celebrated collector of statues and pictures, says, with a zeal in his pur-

suit equal to that of the Roman orator, that a man cannot be honest unless he understands the art of drawing. John Evelyn, who relates this anecdote with applause, very cautiously adds, "How that observation succeeds in general, we have not made it much our observation."—*Evelyn's Hist. of Chalcography.*

A Mr. Lefebvre has invented a pack of cards which contains the elements of botany. He has followed a system of his own, which he has developed in several discourses laid down before in the Institute. He places all the flowers in the world in four clases, Polypedales, Menopedales, Peregones, and compound flowers. These supply the place of the four suits, diamonds, clubs, spades, and hearts. The other divisions are likewise the same as at cards, viz: twelve matadors or figures; and the plain cards, from ace to ten. The latter are expressed by the stamina of the flowers; and Linnæus's 12 last classes supply the place of king, queen, and knave, on each of the four principal divisions. These cards are called "Boston de Flore."

The London Examiner compliments Mr. Irving, and his Sketch Book. The editor concludes a literary notice of this work, as follows: "We trust this work will be read and admired by the British public. Nothing is more desirable than that the first fruits of American talent should be encouraged, that our ultramarine brethren may be excited to a rivalry in letters, which should at once forward their taste and refinement, and gain them a lasting literary reputation worthy to go down to posterity along with their glorious political fame."

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Poetry.

FROM THE NEW YORK COLUMBIAN.

THE SENTRY.

The Sentry walks at midnight hour—
He thinks of home, of love and joy,
Of field and stream, of bank and flower,
That charm'd him when a careless boy!
To other scenes—to other shores,
Rejoicing fancy then repairs,
And every time-worn trace restores—
The bliss of many a dear one shares!

Then, while the moon rides clear and high,
Unconsciously his bosom swells;
He gazes with a lover's eye—
Another on its beauty dwells!
Oh! thinks he then of secret foe,
Who haply haunts that slumb'ring scene?
Oh! heeds he danger's shadow? No—
He roams his native village green.

"In such a scene," his heart will say,
"So sweetly still, so wildly fair,
Ye bless'd companions far away!
The soft-ton'd flute gave wings to care!
Or 'neath yon alder's berried crest,
Bent o'er the upland riv'let's fall,
Love, blushing, beauty's ear address'd—
And worlds to that dear spot were small!"

The sentry walks at dead of night,
With melting tears his eyes are wet!
While soft the moon's unclouded light
Streams on his burnish'd bayonet;
'Tis not a dastard's blighting tear,
Or rapid tear that grief demands;
Yon sailing moon brings to his ear
The short, sweet hymns of distant lands!

Then calmly, on the lap of earth,
His father's moss strown cot appears—
The moaning wheel—the crowded hearth—
The *fondest breast* of early years!
The old rush bottom'd chair, whence breath'd
His grandsire's legendary lore—
The vine which thro' the casement wreath'd,
All, all he knew or lov'd before!

Sweet, sweet, when home's blue curling smoke,
Hath faded on the distant skies,
When, by the door, the spreading oak
No more delights our aching eyes!
Sweet then, on fancy's wings to soar
Where childhood's lovely spirits roam,
To live those days of rapture o'er—
The lost—the lov'd—the only *home!*

How will that lonely sentry weep!
The while he lists some well known tune,
Borne wild o'er rock and pine-clad steep,
Where Hudson sparkles to the moon!
For mem'ry, from the world apart,
Restores the shades of parted joy;
She gives the warm, unchanging heart,
Those scenes that charm'd the careless boy!

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